

The
PATHOLOGY
of
NUTRITIONAL DISEASE

The
PATHOLOGY
of
NUTRITIONAL DISEASE

* * * * *

*Physiological and Morphological Changes Which Result
from Deficiencies of the Essential
Elements, Amino Acids, Vitamins, and Fatty Acids*

* * * * *

By

RICHARD H FOLLIS, JR., M D

*Associate Professor of Pathology
Duke University School of Medicine
Durham, North Carolina*



CHARLES C THOMAS • PUBLISHER
Springfield • Illinois • U S A

CHARLES C THOMAS PUBLISHER
BANNERSTONE HOUSE
301 377 EAST LAWRENCE AVENUE SPRINGFIELD ILLINOIS

Published simultaneously in the British Commonwealth of Nations by
BLACKWELL SCIENTIFIC PUBLICATIONS LTD OXFORD ENGLAND

Published simultaneously in Canada by
THE RYERSON PRESS TORONTO

This book is protected by copyright. No part of it
may be duplicated or reproduced in any manner without
written permission from the publisher

Copyright 1948 by CHARLES C THOMAS PUBLISHER

Printed in the United States of America

*For
Bunny
Angela and Louise*

Preface

"There is perhaps no other subject in medicine where so many contradictions and incorrect statements were made, which instead of advancing the research retarded it by leading investigators in a wrong direction." Funk, 1912 (1)

The above statement was made by Casimir Funk over thirty years ago. Unfortunately what he said then still holds true today. Currently there is much need for a reevaluation of the clinical aspects of nutritional deficiency states, as Dunn and Darby have recently pointed out (2). Just as much, however, the physiological and morphological changes which accompany deficiencies in one or more of the essential elements, vitamins, amino acids and fatty acids require careful and critical analysis, especially with respect to man in whom data which have been accumulated during the past forty years are based on dietaries and observations which are too inadequate when held up to present day standards.

This book has been formulated to gather together the available information which deals with the physiological and morphological changes occurring naturally or produced experimentally which accompany deficiencies of one or more of the forty odd nutrients now known to be essential. It is hoped that this volume will be of value and a stimulus not only to the pathologist but to workers in nutrition, biochemistry and other fields as well. The importance of the correlation of anatomical and biochemical changes in tissues is obvious enough but is something too infrequently realized in practice. Biochemists can thank the pathologist and histologist for many of the leads which have opened up new horizons in physiological chemistry; the reverse is true as well. But it is unfortunate that the two so seldom meet.

At the outset some explanation of the scope of this volume must be offered. The field of nutritional deficiencies has become a large one and continues to grow. We have, therefore, purposely restricted the discussion to changes which have been reported in Mammalia. The effects of deficiencies on bacteria can be and have been adequately treated by others. So too, consequences of a lack of one or more essential nutrients on invertebrates and the lower vertebrates, though of great interest to the comparative pathologist, would only confuse any discussion in the present volume. I may be criticized for failure to include tissue changes which have been described in birds. Since, in general, the metabolism of Aves differs greatly from the Mammalia and since some of the tissue changes already described in the two

nutrients are treated. For purposes of orientation a brief historical introduction begins each section. Such an introduction can of necessity cover only a few of the highlights of the subject. For instance, as it has been presented the discovery of a certain vitamin would seem to have been a relatively simple matter. Such obviously was not usually the case. The few papers cited are but a fraction of many reports of investigations carried out before the final solution of a particular problem was reached. So too I must ask indulgence of the biochemist and nutritionist who read the various sections which deal with a few of the biochemical relationships of a particular nutrient. This section has been added to help orient those who have not kept up with the many advances in this field during the past decade and is not meant to be an exhaustive summary of the subject. In the third part of each section

Pathological Effects we have tried to include both the anatomical and physiological changes which accompany deficiencies of the various nutrients and have attempted to present such material as clearly, critically, and precisely as possible and to illustrate the pathological changes whenever this could be done. The sources of the material presented in this volume are derived from a review of an appropriate but certainly inadequate literature augmented in a number of instances by histological preparations from our own experiments published and unpublished. As many of the illustrations as possible having been selected from such experimental material with which we were familiar.

The bibliography which is a condensation of the publications which have been consulted lists most of the now-classical papers, especially those dealing with morphological studies. Obviously those references to the chemical and physiological roles of the nutrients which are enumerated are only a fraction of the total available. This book was not designed to furnish anything but a brief introduction and review of this phase of the subject.

A preface does more than attempt to state the purpose and plan of a book. It affords the author an opportunity to thank those who have aided in making such an undertaking possible.

Numerous investigators have been most generous in allowing me to reproduce illustrations published and unpublished from their work. I express my sincere appreciation to Dr. S. Burt Wolbach, Dr. J. R. M. Innes, Dr. Maurice Sullivan, Dr. Paul Boyle, Dr. Josef Warkany, Dr. D. T. Smith, Dr. D. W. Woolley, Dr. W. Buschke and Dr. Stefan Ansbacher. To the editors of the publications cited in the legends, many thanks. Others, Dr. Karl E. Mason, Dr. Philip Handler, Dr. E. Lowenhaupt, Dr. D. M. Greenberg and Dr. Maurice Sullivan, have kindly allowed me to study and reproduce some of their experimental material.

Many of the photographs, particularly those of our own preparations, were made by Mr. Carl Bishop, whom I take this opportunity to thank.

are so divergent, a discussion of birds has been excluded in order to give the general presentation a little more continuity if such is possible.

In the preparation of the various sections of this book the work dealing with experimental deficiencies of single nutrients in animals has been fairly easy to interpret. Much of the older literature had, of course, to be omitted since multiple deficiencies were unknowingly being studied. It is only when consideration must be given to nutritional disease in man that difficulties arise. To many it may come as a shock, therefore, that so little of the total space is devoted to physiological and morphological changes in the human. We have tried to bring some order out of the voluminous literature albeit in vain. One must realize however that of the forty odd nutrients which are considered in this book only a relatively small number have been shown by themselves to lead to deficiency disease in man except under stringent laboratory conditions. Among the clinical syndromes ascribed to nutritional deficiencies some are occasionally uncomplicated: scurvy, the anemia of iron deficiency, possibly the nyctalopia and ocular manifestations of vitamin A deficiency and the hypoprothrombinemia of vitamin K deficiency. Among others: rickets (alone or in combination with scurvy), beriberi, pellagra and even possibly colloid goiter all provide evidence that multiple deficiencies are responsible for the morphological change which are observed. In going over the literature dealing with pellagra and beriberi many possible factors are encountered, in the former syndrome one may deal with a deficiency of nicotinic acid, riboflavin, pyridoxine, iron, folic acid, thiamine and the quantity or quality of protein, the amount of water ingested, sunlight and doubtless countless other factors also seem to play a role.

In the pages to follow therefore we have attempted to present those pathological both physiological and morphological changes in man which can be ascribed with some certainty to the deficient factor which is being discussed and have attempted to steer clear of as many of the controversial points as possible especially when we have convinced ourselves that the controversy is stired mainly on a lack of data. On the subject of human nutritional disease especially in this country I do not wish to be regarded as a nutritional nihilist. However as one who continually observes disease at the autopsy table it is not possible—except in the case of scurvy and rickets in infants—to be other than conservative, a leaning which perhaps has some virtue in these days of vitamin inflation.

Since this volume has been designed to tie up the physiological and morphological changes produced by single deficiencies we have given meager space to the clinical aspects and diagnosis of nutritional disease in the human. It is hoped that this treatment will serve to point out more forcibly the defects which are so widespread in our knowledge.

Some comment is necessary for the way in which the various essential

Contents

Preface

vii

PART I

DILTARY DEFICIENCIES IN GENERAL

| | |
|--|----|
| Introduction | 3 |
| Specific and Non Specific Tissue Changes | 8 |
| Endogenous Nutritional Deficiencies | 12 |
| The Pathogenesis of Nutritional Disease | 14 |

PART II

THE ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS

| | |
|---|----|
| Introduction | 19 |
| Function of the Essential Elements | 19 |
| Isotopes | 20 |
| Ubiquitous Elements of Unknown Function | 20 |
| Inter-relations of the Elements | 22 |
| The Essential Elements and the Periodic Table | 23 |
| Calcium | 24 |
| Magnesium | 27 |
| Potassium | 32 |
| Sodium | 39 |
| Sulfur | 41 |
| Phosphorus | 42 |
| Chlorine | 45 |
| Iron | 47 |
| Copper | 50 |
| Cobalt | 56 |
| Manganese | 57 |
| Zinc | 59 |
| Iodine | 63 |
| Fluorine | 68 |

PART III

THE ESSENTIAL AMINO ACIDS

| | |
|---------------------|----|
| Proteins in General | 73 |
| Tryptophane | 75 |
| Lysine | 77 |
| Histidine | 78 |
| Arginine | 79 |
| Phenylalanine | 79 |
| Leucine | 80 |
| Isoleucine | 81 |
| Threonine | 81 |
| Methionine | 82 |
| Valine | 85 |

In the preparation of the manuscript Miss Doris Tew has rendered invaluable assistance

To my Chief, Dr Wiley D Forbus, may I express my gratitude for his interest and for making available to me the facilities of this department I should also like to thank Dr Philip Handler for answering many, many questions concerning points dealing with biochemistry

My relations with Mr Charles C Thomas and Mr Payne Thomas have been most cordial and it is a real pleasure to express my appreciation for their keen interest and help in this undertaking

Lastly, I should like to express my respects and appreciation to those with whom I have collaborated To Dr E A Parl I owe a tremendous debt for introducing me to the study of nutritional disease by way of the effects of vitamin D and ascorbic acid deficiencies on bone Dr E V McCollum and our fellow collaborators, Drs Harry G Dav and Elsa Orent-Keiles taught me a great deal, particularly about deficiencies dealing with the various inorganic elements My associations with Dr M M Wintrobe and his collaborators have been profitable and enjoyable during the period in which we studied the effects of various vitamin deficiencies on swine Finally I extend my heartfelt thanks to Arnold R Rich for his continued stimulation and constructive criticism during the progress of many of the experiments described herein and above all for instilling in this student of disease some of the principles and philosophy of scientific investigation

R H F Jr

Durham, N C
September 1946

The
PATHOLOGY
of
NUTRITIONAL DISEASE

PART IV

THE FAT AND WATER SOLUBLE VITAMINS

| | |
|--|-----|
| Introduction | 89 |
| Vitamin A | 91 |
| Vitamins D | 104 |
| Vitamins E (Alpha tocopherol and its Homologs) | 119 |
| Vitamin K | 128 |
| Ascorbic Acid | 130 |
| Thiamine | 145 |
| Riboflavin | 158 |
| Nicotinic Acid | 166 |
| Pantothenic Acid | 173 |
| Pyridoxine | 187 |
| Choline | 191 |
| Biotin | 198 |
| Folic Acid (<i>L. Casei Factor</i>) | 202 |
| Inositol | 204 |
| Para-Aminobenzoic Acid | 205 |

PART V

THE ESSENTIAL FATTY ACIDS

| | |
|---|-----|
| Linoleic, Linolenic and Arachidonic Acids | 209 |
|---|-----|

PART VI

THE PATHOLOGIC ANATOMY OF SPECIFIC TISSUES A RECAPITULATION AND COMPARISON

| | |
|---|-----|
| Epithelial Tissues | 215 |
| Mesenchymal Tissues | 224 |
| Blood Forming Tissues Vessels and the Coagulation Mechanism | 227 |
| Muscle Tissues | 231 |
| Nervous Tissues | 232 |
| Bibliography | 237 |
| Author Index | 277 |
| Subject Index | |

PART I

DIETARY DEFICIENCIES IN GENERAL

"The steady progress in understanding of the biochemistries of the vitamins now obtainable in a pure form is a challenge to the cytologist because in some instances it should be possible to determine the loci, within cells of vitamin activities. The opportunity of associating chemical activities or functional roles within nuclear or cytoplasmic structures appears to be at hand"
Wolbach 1937 (3)

PART I

DIETARY DEFICIENCIES IN GENERAL

"The steady progress in understanding of the biochemistries of the vitamins now obtainable in a pure form is a challenge to the cytologist because in some instances it should be possible to determine the loci, within cells of vitamin activities. The opportunity of associating chemical activities or functional roles within nuclear or cytoplasmic structures appears to be at hand"
Wolbach 1937 (3)

PART I

NUTRITIONAL DEFICIENCIES IN GENERAL

| | |
|--|----|
| Introduction | 5 |
| Specific and Non Specific Tissue Changes | 8 |
| Endogenous Nutritional Deficiencies | 12 |
| The Pathogenesis of Nutritional Disease | 14 |

INTRODUCTION

The preceding quotation can be applied to not only the vitamins, but the essential inorganic elements, amino acids and fatty acids as well. At the present time there is evidence in one or more species for the indispensability of seventeen or eighteen of the ninety odd elements, about fifteen vitamins, ten of the twenty odd amino acids and three closely related unsaturated fatty acids. The term 'indispensability' is based on a number of criteria: growth, maintenance of nitrogen balance and weight, absence of metabolic defect and/or morphological change, normal reproduction et cetera. Since the pioneer studies of I. G. Hopkins, growth has been the criterion most commonly used to determine the dispensability or indispensability of a given nutrient. Normal growth, of course, imposes the greatest possible metabolic drain on the organism and hence brings out most dramatically changes which might only appear slowly or even not at all in the adult organism. Rickets and scurvy are cases in point, though other factors must be considered, these two diseases manifest themselves most flagrantly in the young child during that period when bone growth is so rapid.

Although the pathology of rickets in humans had been described by Pommer (345) in 1885 and changes associated with the scorbutic state by Barlow (468) two years before, the first two decades of this century furnished little else to in understanding of tissue changes which accompany other nutritional deficiencies. It seems fitting to recall the often quoted statement in the British Medical Research Council's *Report on the present state of knowledge of accessory food factors (vitamins)*: "Disease is so generally associated with positive agents—the parasite, the toxin, the *materies morbi*—that the thought of the pathologist turns naturally to such positive associations and seems to believe with difficulty in causation prefixed by a minus sign" (4). Pathologists of those decades must not be too severely criticised for their failure to study the effects of nutritional deficiencies, inasmuch as the science of nutrition was only then in its infancy. It is true, however, that most of our knowledge of the pathological changes associated with a lack of the essential nutrients has only been accumulated during the past twenty-five years since the above statement was published. But even now, the surface has just been scratched and as Wolbach indicated in the opening quotation, there is much to be learned.

Pertinent advances in the elucidation of those lesions which may be pro-

duced by a deficiency of one or more indispensable nutrients in tissues have been made by a relative small group of investigators. Wolbach and his co-workers, Howe, Boyle and Bessey have made outstanding contributions to the pathology of scurvy and the formation of intercellular substances, epithelial and osseous changes in vitamin A deficiency, dental changes, rickets and lesions resulting from deficiencies of the vitamin B group. The publications from Pappenheimer's laboratory are also significant. Low phosphorus rickets, muscular dystrophy, vitamin E deficiency in a variety of species. The Johns Hopkins workers, including McCollum, Park, Shipley, and their collaborators, and more recently Wintrobe and Sullivan, have aided in elucidating many of the structural manifestations of deficiency diseases: rickets, scurvy, deficiencies of the elements, vitamin deficiencies in swine, nutritional dermatoses in rats. The important work of certain other investigators will soon come to light in the pages which follow. Evans, Gyorgy, Goldblatt, Mason, Lillie, Daft, Sebrell and, in England, Mellinby and Innes. Those who have contributed to our knowledge of biochemical changes, including growth, must not be lost sight of in this brief resume. Such investigators include the group at Yale: Chittenden, Underhill, Osborne and Mendel, workers at the University of Wisconsin, Hart, Steenbock, Elvehjem and their associates as well as many others. Rose, Greenberg, Woolley and DuVigneaud.

A study of the effects of deficiencies of essential nutrients offers a new and appealing approach to the reactions of many tissues to certain injurious stimuli. Advances which have proved fruitful have been made in several fields of biological science. Some of these should be mentioned and paths for further investigation indicated.

For the *histologist* and *histochemist* much has been gained by applying the technique of alterations in tissues produced by deficiency states. The controlled formation of intercellular substances in the study of collagen and bone deposition is an eminent example (463). Studies on erythropoiesis have proved and should continue to be fruitful, inasmuch as there are certain essential nutrients which specifically control red blood cell and hemoglobin formation. Then too, more precise information on the function and maintenance of myelin might be obtained by studying deficiencies in pyridoxine, pantothenic acid (611) and copper (145).

For the *embryologist* investigations of the effects of maternal diets on the off-spring have already yielded important data. The relation of riboflavin deficiency to congenital malformations will be discussed in more detail later (5565). The effects of other nutritional deficiencies on the embryo have hardly been examined. Changes associated with a deficiency of alpha-tocopherol (402) should stimulate the study of various vitamin and amino

acid deprivations. This is a field in human nutrition which is just beginning to be explored (6).

For the *endocrinologist* there are again many problems to investigate. The relationship of certain vitamins to degeneration of the liver with consequent effects on estrogen metabolism could be mentioned as an example of what has already been accomplished (550). Investigation of the cytological characteristics of the ductless glands in various nutritional deficiencies should be productive. The effects of injections of various hormones in specific deficiencies should yield valuable information on the relationship of hormones and vitamins. For instance in this connection it is of interest that when estrogenic hormone is administered to rats, atrophy of the epidermis and sebaceous glands occurs which is very reminiscent of the alterations produced by riboflavin deficiency. This may be related to the failure of the riboflavin deficient liver to inactivate estrogens (550).

The *microbiologist* has only just begun to study the reactions of deficient organisms to bacteria, viruses, fungi, protozoa, et cetera. To be sure certain general effects of malnutrition on resistance to infection have been observed, such as depression of antibody formation and phagocytic activity (8), that the former is related to protein reserve has also been shown (9). The effects of deficiencies of all specific nutrients on various immune agents of disease can be investigated with profit. For example, it is likely that the intracellular environment of the host may be changed, the course of a subsequent infection with an intracellular parasite such as a virus can then be studied. The reactions of mice deficient in various vitamins to injections with the Lansing strain of poliomyelitis and Theiler's encephalomyelitis have been most interesting, the variations in susceptibility are summarized in the following table.

Table I

| Type of Deficiency | Lansing Strain | Theiler's Strain |
|-----------------------|----------------|------------------|
| Thiamine (10) | + | + |
| Pantothenic acid (11) | 0 | + |
| Riboflavin (12) | ± | 0 |
| Pyridoxine (13) | 0 | 0 |
| Biotin (13) | 0 | 0 |
| Inositol (13) | 0 | 0 |

Nutritional deficiency disease as an adjunct to cancer research has already opened new approaches for the *oncologist*. The relationships of biotin and pyridoxine to the production of liver tumors by butter yellow (p-dimethyl amino azobenzene) are too familiar to necessitate recounting (710, 650). Among others a fruitful field would seem to be the relation of the inorganic elements to the development of epidermal tumors. It has been shown that when methylcholanthrene is applied to the skin of mice there is a decrease

in the calcium iron zinc, and copper contents of the epidermis (14) It would be of interest to determine the effect of deficiencies of these elements on the development of cancer in the epidermis of this species

The *geneticist* also should find the field of nutritional deficiencies of interest For instance, there is some evidence that hereditary hypotrichotic rats will respond to cysteine feeding by growing hair (278) The behavior of certain congenital waltzing and dancing mice (15) is reminiscent of descriptions of the activities of valine-deficient rats Then, too, the breeding of vitamin susceptible and vitamin resistant strains would seem to offer great possibilities for the geneticist and nutritionist to collaborate There is already evidence that this can be accomplished In the development of both rickets (378) and dental caries (16) significant differences have been observed in various strains of animals Such evidence may help explain variations in response to deficiency of certain nutrients, such as the response of the kidney to choline deprivation The field of genetics is one whose relationship to deficiency studies has been, up to now little explored

Lastly, nutritional deficiencies should be of particular interest to the *comparative pathologist* and *veterinarian* Although the response of the rat to depletion in single essential nutrients has been extensively studied such is not the case for the guinea pig mouse and certain domestic animals The reactions of several species to deficiencies of all of the essential nutrients should be systematically examined Another fertile field would seem to be that of spontaneous or endemic deficiency disease which is in the domain of the veterinary pathologist Deficiencies of calcium phosphorus iron copper, and cobalt all fall into this group Studies already carried out have yielded valuable information However such investigations are based on fairly impure rations of unknown dietary content and should be repeated with diets of known composition A notable example, of course is copper deficiency

These few examples should indicate some of the ramifications which research in nutritional deficiencies has in other fields Obviously a most important part of the study of tissue changes associated with a lack of dietary essentials is in the domain of biochemistry and the correlation of physiological and morphological alterations must always be stressed It is fitting to close this introduction with a plea which Wolbach has made to the biochemist and nutritionist A general pathologist who studies life chiefly from the morphologic aspects may well be appalled by the wasted opportunities represented by animals consigned to incinerators at the completion of carefully conducted experiments in nutritional fields' (379)

SPECIFIC AND NON-SPECIFIC TISSUE CHANGES

It is extremely important to realize that virtually any dietary restriction leads to some change in one or more tissues The question which then arises

is whether the observed change is a specific or non-specific one. By merely reducing the caloric intake of the growing organism, growth may be retarded or completely stopped, in time certain characteristic alterations may be found at autopsy. If all of the dietary essentials have been present and have been utilized, one can ordinarily assume that the changes observed are non-specific, that is they are the result of inanition or atrophy.

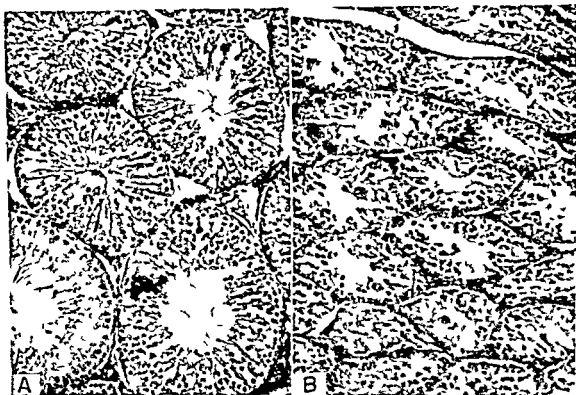


FIGURE 1 Testis. An Effect of Inanition. A Normal testis showing spermatogenesis with spermatozoa in the lumen of several tubules which are normal in size. B Testis from rat whose growth was impaired by inadequate caloric intake. Note difference in size as compared with A and also decrease in spermatozoa and spermatocytes. There are a few giant cells in the lumens of these tubules. Only Sertoli cells and a few spermatogonia remain.

At autopsy, in the atrophic organism, there is usually a marked decrease in fatty tissue, not only in the subcutaneous region but about the mesentery, kidneys, uterus and testes. The lymphoid tissue becomes atrophic so that the lymph nodes and spleen are greatly reduced in size. In addition there is marked diminution in the size of the thymus which is one of the best indices of nutrition in the growing organism. There may be alopecia. Furthermore there is usually atrophy of the genital organs with absence of spermatogenesis and oogenesis. The vaginal lining becomes atrophic and reproduction is impaired. There may be complete cessation of osteogenesis so that the epiphyseal cartilage stops proliferating and bone growth ceases at the cartilage shaft junction and in the shaft as well. In the adrenal there may be loss of

in the calcium iron zinc, and copper contents of the epidermis (14) It would be of interest to determine the effect of deficiencies of these elements on the development of cancer in the epidermis of this species

The *geneticist* also should find the field of nutritional deficiencies of interest For instance there is some evidence that hereditary hypotriotic rats will respond to cysteine feeding by growing hair (278) The behavior of certain congenital waltzing and dancing mice (15) is reminiscent of descriptions of the activities of valine-deficient rats Then, too the breeding of vitamin susceptible and vitamin resistant strains would seem to offer great possibilities for the geneticist and nutritionist to collaborate There is already evidence that this can be accomplished In the development of both rickets (378) and dental caries (16) significant differences have been observed in various strains of animals Such evidence may help explain variations in response to deficiency of certain nutrients such as the response of the kidney to choline deprivation The field of genetics is one whose relationship to deficiency studies has been, up to now little explored

Lastly nutritional deficiencies should be of particular interest to the *comparative pathologist* and *zooecarian* Although the response of the rat to depletion in single essential nutrients has been extensively studied such is not the case for the guinea pig mouse and certain domestic animals The reactions of several species to deficiencies of all of the essential nutrients should be systematically examined Another fertile field would seem to be that of spontaneous or endemic deficiency disease, which is in the domain of the veterinary pathologist Deficiencies of calcium phosphorus iron copper and cobalt all fall into this group Studies already carried out have yielded valuable information However such investigations are based on fairly impure rations of unknown dietary content and should be repeated with diets of known composition A notable example of course, is copper deficiency

These few examples should indicate some of the ramifications which research in nutritional deficiencies has in other fields Obviously a most important part of the study of tissue changes associated with a lack of dietary essentials is in the domain of biochemistry and the correlation of physiological and morphological alterations must always be stressed It is fitting to close this introduction with a plea which Wolbach has made to the biochemist and nutritionist A general pathologist who studies life chiefly from the morphologic aspects may well be appalled by the wasted opportunities represented by animals consigned to incinerators at the completion of carefully conducted experiments in nutritional fields' (379)

SPECIFIC AND NON-SPECIFIC TISSUE CHANGES

It is extremely important to realize that virtually any dietary restriction leads to some change in one or more tissues The question which then arises

tion is exemplified in swine suffering from either acute or chronic thiamine deficiency: the former animals may die, ostensibly of heart failure, with virtually no microscopic changes in the myocardium, while the latter usually exhibit extensive areas of damage in the cardiac musculature (506). Similar differences have been noted in many other deficient states.

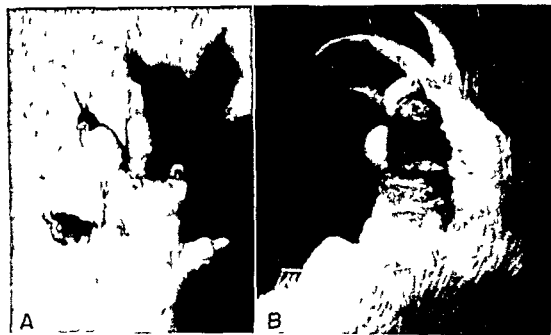


FIGURE 7. An Effect of a Multiple Vitamin Deficiency (299). The paws of animals which were placed on a synthetic diet to which thiamine and riboflavin but no other portions of the B complex were added. A: There is gangrene of the terminal phalanges of the first and second digits and an almost complete amputation of the fourth digit. B: There is localized gangrene of the first digit; the others show no evidence of involvement. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan and *The Journal of Investigative Dermatology*.)

An approach which has been used but little is to combine deficiencies of several essential nutrients and study the resulting syndrome. This has been done with two or more vitamins with elements and vitamins or with several elements; interesting results have been obtained. For instance, when rats are made deficient in all of the B group except thiamine, skin lesions characteristic of pantothenic acid (606), pyridoxine (642) and riboflavin (552) deficiencies do not develop, on the contrary, there is only atrophy of the epidermis and its appendages (298). Again when only thiamine and riboflavin are fed as the B group to rats, gangrene and spontaneous amputation of the digits may appear (299). In another study, animals were made deficient in an element, potassium, and a vitamin, thiamine; separately these two nutrients lead to myocardial necrosis, but the hearts of rats deficient in both together showed no changes (96). Lastly, when a deficiency of sodium and chlorine is produced simultaneously, the results are different (107) from those

tainable lipid in the cortex, especially in the glomerular and fascicular zones. These, then, are some of the more striking changes which may be observed. Other less dramatic but non-specific alterations have been described and are fully discussed by Jackson (17).

Again and again in the literature changes such as those described above are cited as evidence of specific damage which has resulted from deficiencies of various single nutrients. Certain investigators seem to have overlooked the possibility that failure of an animal to eat or utilize his food may lead to many of these non-specific changes.

On the other hand there are specific tissue alterations which are dependent on the absence of one or more essential nutrients from the diet. Some of these lesions may only be produced by a lack of a single nutrient, others are common to deficiencies of more than one material. The effect of vitamin C deprivation on the bones furnishes a good example of the first type, while corneal vascularization in the rat exemplifies the latter, where deprivation of a number of factors each one an essential nutrient causes capillaries to invade the avascular cornea. In virtually all of the deficiencies that have been adequately studied, specific pathological changes both physiological and morphological have been observed. Undoubtedly others will come to light as more intensive observations are carried out, especially when the newer techniques of histochemistry are utilized.

The criticism raised above that the pathologist does not properly control his experiments can also be leveled at the biochemist. There are numerous experiments some of which will be cited in the pages to follow in which the effects of inanition and differences in weight gain were not considered in evaluating the results.

It is extremely important to mention certain other pertinent points in regard to the actual techniques of nutritional experiments. One way of reducing the error due to inanition is not to feed control animals *ad libitum*, but to use the paired feeding technique. In this procedure the control animals are given an amount of diet equal in weight to that which the deficient animal ate the day before. An even stricter method though more laborious and one which has been little used is to attempt to manipulate the dietary intake of the controls so as to produce the same gain or loss of weight manifested by the deficient animals. Another extremely important point which has been emphasized by Wolbach (317) is the study of reparative phenomena in deficient animals to which a missing essential nutrient has been administered for varying periods before autopsy.

Furthermore it is important to realize that when an acute overwhelming deficiency state is produced the morphological changes may be slight or even absent in comparison with tissue alterations which may be encountered when the deficiency is more chronic and therefore not so severe. This situa-

vitamin A in the liver, and as a consequence the vitamin A concentration in the blood is diminished. So too, when the thyroid gland is poisoned by thiouracil it is unable to utilize inorganic iodine to form physiologically active organic forms.

D. Increased Excretion Ingested materials may be absorbed normally, but reexcreted too rapidly to effect their necessary function. Such conditions may occur when polyuria due to a variety of causes is present. Sweating is another example and endocrine imbalance, such as hypoadrenalism with loss of sodium or the reverse with loss of potassium, may lead to disastrous results. Parathyroid imbalance also promotes excessive loss of calcium and phosphorus from the organism. Lastly, lactation is too often overlooked as a factor leading to a loss of one or more dietary essentials.

E. Increased Requirements Certain intakes of essential nutrients are adequate for the normal needs of the body, but occasionally the needs are increased due to a variety of causes and unless these requirements are met the deficient state may develop. Fever, which results in an increased metabolism is prominent. Hyperthyroidism is of course, another fairly common example. Pregnancy and excessive growth both require an excess of certain nutrients over the normal intake.

F. Inhibition by "anti" Substances Certain materials which are closely related in structure to both vitamins and amino acids will block the action of these specific essential nutrients. For example analogs of ascorbic acid, nicotinic acid, riboflavin and phenyl-alanine when fed in the diet will lead to evidences of deficiency in these specific materials (18).

All of the factors just cited (A to F) presuppose interference with utilization of nutrients whose sources are exogenous. There are of course other endogenous essentials. The question of whether such substances should be called hormones need not detain us here. For instance whether the ascorbic acid which is formed by the rat is a hormone for that species, while it is a vitamin for man and the guinea pig are questions beside the point. It should be borne in mind however, that the list of essential nutrients is doubtless by no means complete. Enough stress cannot be placed on the role which the micro-organisms that compose the intestinal flora play in the elaboration of certain nutrients. Their importance in the manufacture of vitamins is too well known to warrant further discussion. They may also be a source of certain amino acids a question requiring careful consideration (page 73). One can confidently predict that the entire question of essential nutrients for a given species will not be settled until representatives of that species are raised in sterile environments so as to eliminate the role of micro-organisms completely. Although a start has been made with sulfa drugs the administration of such compounds introduces another unwelcome variable.

which occur when either one or the other of these essential nutrients is withheld from the diet (110, 122)

Since the advent of purified rations and crystalline vitamins few studies of inanition have been reported, here would seem to be a fruitful field for future investigations

ENDOGENOUS NUTRITIONAL DEFICIENCIES

The single essential nutrients which were alluded to at the beginning of this section must all be furnished from exogenous sources—at least for some organisms—if physiological and/or morphological evidences of damage are to be averted. Naturally, the experimental approach eliminates one or more of these nutrients from the diet of the animal, one may then study the resultant physiological and morphological changes which take place. Such a situation of course, does not ordinarily occur in man unless produced deliberately or because of economic reasons. There are, however, a number of subsidiary and contributory factors which can lead to experimental dietary deficiency in animals and to natural disease in man. These situations deserve mention.

A *Interference with Intake* Loss of appetite (anorexia) due to a variety of causes may lead to a deficient intake of one or more nutrients. Gastro-intestinal disease or other metabolic disturbances including pregnancy or food allergy may produce anorexia. Then too, certain mechanical factors may be important. Tumors within or without the intestinal tract may lead to partial or complete obstruction. Lastly, adenitis, inflammation of the buccal tissues, et cetera, may interfere with the ingestion of foodstuffs.

B *Interference with Absorption* Although adequate amounts of an essential nutrient may be ingested, optimal quantities may not be absorbed due to a variety of reasons. Hypermotility of the intestinal tract may move the material through the lumen too rapidly for adequate absorption to take place, or insoluble complexes may form and prevent absorption of a particular material such as the combination of lead or beryllium with phosphorus and oxalate or fat with calcium. Absence of digestive secretions may likewise inhibit absorption, the efficiency of bile and pancreatic juice for the absorption of the four fat-soluble vitamins is an excellent example. Lastly, certain essential nutrients may actually be destroyed or inactivated before absorption from the intestinal tract. The destruction of thiamine by an enzyme from certain fish and the inactivation of biotin by avidin are examples of these complications.

C *Interference with Storage or Utilization* Even after adequate amounts of one or more nutrients are ingested and absorbed, they may be poorly stored or utilized. Hepatic disease for instance may lead to low levels of

tion of the characteristics of the red blood cells and examinations of the cornea by the low power of the slit lamp. Finally, however, tissues must be removed for microscopic examination, whether during life or after death, before gross lesions make their appearance. In time the latter occur and diagnosis may be made from the macroscopic or clinical findings.

The above sequence, of course, does not take place in every instance, nor does it go on to completion so that one will find gross or even microscopic lesions in every deficiency—quite the contrary. In thiamine deficiency of swine for instance, an animal may die of heart failure, having previously shown electrocardiographic abnormalities, at autopsy virtually no microscopic changes may be found in the heart (506). The above concept of the pathogenesis of dietary deficiencies serves a useful purpose, especially in experimental studies of nutritional disease. For a fuller discussion, especially from the clinical standpoint, one should consult the paper of Dann and Darby (2). It must be emphasized that no single nutrient has been simultaneously studied from the biochemical, physiological and morphological standpoints—something which is greatly to be desired.

THE PATHOGENESIS OF NUTRITIONAL DISEASE

Bearing in mind the various factors which may affect the absorption, utilization, excretion, et cetera, of the essential nutrients what sort of a picture may we draw of the usual course of events which may be expected to occur as the deficient state develops? Although there are certain obvious exceptions which will be alluded to later most workers (2) in the field of nutrition have adopted the hypothesis that the physiological and pathological changes which result from deficiencies of essential nutrients develop in a definite and orderly sequence 1 Decreased concentration in the blood and intercellular fluid 2 Decreased intracellular concentrations in one or more tissues 3 Physiological changes in such tissues followed by 4 Pathological alterations which are first seen microscopically and then become grossly visible

It has been assumed that a decreased blood concentration of an essential nutrient is evidence of a decreased saturation of the body in that nutrient. Such a concept is of course based on 'normal' or lower limit of normal values which unfortunately have been extremely difficult to determine. Chemical studies of blood plasma are therefore not entirely satisfactory, much more useful than blood plasma are saturation or desaturation tests which lead one to the second link in the pathogenesis of deficiency disease decreased concentrations of the nutrient in one or more tissues.

Here one is on firmer ground since the actual concentration of a given nutrient can be measured in red cells the white cell-platelet layer, muscle biopsies and, of course almost any tissue from an experimental animal at autopsy. So too, histochemical studies can be made of tissue sections and decreases in nutrients such as vitamin A (310) or riboflavin (760) may be demonstrated under the microscope. When the concentration of a particular nutrient in a certain tissue falls to a critical level, one may then expect evidences of metabolic derangements to appear. These may manifest themselves in a variety of ways which are amenable to detection and measurement. Abnormal metabolites may be found in tissues blood or excreta pyruvate (507) anthurenic acid (635) and parahydroxy phenyllactic acid (454, 455) are examples of this phenomenon. Liver function tests may be employed to detect changes in that organ (677). Then too physiologic measurements of normal processes can be employed electrocardiogram (504), electroencephalogram (531) tests of dark adaptation (321-339) and blood pressure determinations (111).

When the concentrations of a given nutrient have reached certain minimum tissue levels which are incompatible with life morphologic alterations may be expected. This, however does not necessarily mean that the entire organism dies. Tissues may be examined before death counts and determina-

tion of the characteristics of the red blood cells and examinations of the cornea by the low power of the slit lamp. Finally, however, tissues must be removed for microscopic examination, whether during life or after death, before gross lesions make their appearance. In time the latter occur and diagnosis may be made from the macroscopic or clinical findings.

The above sequence, of course, does not take place in every instance, nor does it go on to completion so that one will find gross or even microscopic lesions in every deficiency—quite the contrary. In thiamine deficiency of swine, for instance, an animal may die of heart failure, having previously shown electrocardiographic abnormalities, at autopsy virtually no microscopic changes may be found in the heart (506). The above concept of the pathogenesis of dietary deficiencies serves a useful purpose, especially in experimental studies of nutritional disease. For a fuller discussion, especially from the clinical standpoint, one should consult the paper of Dann and Darby (2). It must be emphasized that no single nutrient has been simultaneously studied from the biochemical, physiological and morphological standpoints—something which is greatly to be desired.

PART II

THE ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS

'That the sodium, potassium, calcium, magnesium, phosphate, chlorine, and sulphate ions play an essential role in living protoplasm is a fact generally accepted. That the ion-protein compounds determine the peculiar properties of the membranes of living tissues is highly probable, and the constancy of composition of these combinations of ions with proteins in most of the body tissues is maintained only when the concentrations of the several ions in the liquid medium, the blood and lymph, remain constant within certain limits. The sensitiveness of the heart muscle to 'unbalanced' salt solutions, and of eggs developing in sea water to which a single basic ion as magnesium or potassium has been added in excess suggests that even slightly abnormal relationship between certain ions in the blood, if maintained for a prolonged period, may prove detrimental to the higher organisms' McCollum and Davis 1915 (762)

PART II
THE ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS

| | |
|---|----|
| Introduction | 19 |
| Function of the Essential Elements | 19 |
| Isotopes | 20 |
| Ubiquitous Elements of Unknown Function | 20 |
| Inter-relations of the Elements | 22 |
| The Essential Elements and the Periodic Table | 23 |
| Calcium | 24 |
| Magnesium | 27 |
| Potassium | 32 |
| Sodium | 39 |
| Sulfur | 41 |
| Phosphorus | 42 |
| Chlorine | 45 |
| Iron | 47 |
| Copper | 50 |
| Cobalt | 56 |
| Manganese | 57 |
| Zinc | 59 |
| Iodine | 63 |
| Fluorine | 68 |

INTRODUCTION

About one percent of the organism's mass is composed of inorganic matter, that is, the metallic and non-metallic elements. Some occur in much larger quantities than others, the latter are usually called trace elements since they are found in such minute amounts. For our purposes the 96 elements which are now known may be divided into three groups: those which occur in the tissues and have been proved to be essential for one or more species, those which are found in varying amounts in the animal organism, but which are thought to be dispensable, and those which have not been demonstrated in the organism under normal conditions. The last group can be eliminated from any further discussion.

Eighteen elements comprise the first group: carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, sulfur, calcium, magnesium, sodium, potassium, chlorine, phosphorus, iron, copper, cobalt, zinc, manganese, iodine and fluorine. The position of the last element is not as certain as that of the others. In the second category are those elements which have been suspected to be necessary for the integrity of certain mammalian tissues since some are usually found on repeated analyses of tissues or secretions such as milk and since a few, for instance, boron and silicon, are necessary for plant growth. The presence of many of this group of elements in foodstuffs doubtlessly explains their occurrence in the organism. Such include arsenic, lead, rubidium, cesium, strontium, tin and barium, a more detailed discussion of which will be deferred until later.

FUNCTION OF THE ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS

The elements play several important roles in the organism and undoubtedly have other functions as yet unknown.

In the first place they serve as structural components of tissues and as sources of energy for cellular metabolism. The place of hydrogen, carbon, oxygen and nitrogen in these connections is obvious since they are the constituents of water, carbohydrate, protein, and fat. Among the other essential elements calcium and phosphorus in particular have a prominent place in giving structural stability to the bones and teeth. Smaller amounts of the other elements are found in these two tissues as well.

The indispensable elements serve in the regulation of acid-base equilibrium, both intra-cellular as well as extra-cellular. The relations here are too familiar to require further notice (49).

Perhaps even as important is the specific role of many of the essential elements as an integral part of certain enzymes or as activators of enzymatic reactions. Some examples might make this more clear. Zinc, for instance, is known to be a constituent of two enzymes, carbonic anhydrase (175) and

uricase (176) copper is said to be a constituent of ascorbic acid oxidase (128) Then too a large group of enzymatic reactions is specifically activated by certain elements For example, calcium is necessary for the reaction prothrombin \rightarrow thrombin (440), while potassium activates the phosphorylation of creatine (83) Manganese is an important ion for the activity of arginase (166), while magnesium is an integral part of the cocarboxylase system (53) These are but a few examples of the importance of inorganic elements in enzymes and enzymatic reactions In addition, of course, the presence of iron and copper in certain oxygen carriers should be recalled (128)

ISOTOPES

Mention might be made of the occurrence of elements having the same atomic number but different atomic weights, that is isotopes Little investigation has been directed at a study of the possible natural occurrence of the isotopes of various essential elements in the animal organism These investigations are of some theoretical importance as is exemplified by one such study on the comparison of the distribution of K_{39}^{39} and K_{41}^{41} in potassium chloride and the tissues of rats (19) Most of the tissues had the same ratio of the two isotopes as compared with the inorganic compound with the exception of bone marrow and blood plasma Here there was a slight but significant increase in the heavier isotope Whether one isotope of a given element is physiologically more reactive than another must be left for further investigation

A more important phase of the subject of isotopes is the use of radioactive elements in metabolic studies Such forms of virtually all of the essential elements have been prepared and are being utilized Some examples of their use will be cited in the pages which follow

UBIQUITOUS ELEMENTS OF UNKNOWN FUNCTION

As was noted above there is a group of elements whose presence is indicated in the organism by chemical methods of examination but whose indispensability has not yet been proven Although a few of these elements may be shown to be essential at some later date it is likely that most to be discussed are ingested with the food or inhaled into the lungs and are therefore purely fortuitous The more important of these will be mentioned below, the data are based for the most part on spectrographic analyses of tissues and milk

Since boron is essential for the growth of plants (764) this element has been investigated with respect to its indispensability for animals Several independent investigations have failed to reveal any evidence that boron is an essential element for the rat and the conclusion must be drawn that if

this element is necessary for this species the amount needed is less than 6 micrograms per rat per day (20, 21, 763). Boron has been identified in milk (22-23) but not in the tissues of the newborn rat (25). Based on growth studies in rats it is said that boron will replace potassium in a diet deficient in the latter element (95), we have been unable to confirm this observation (652).

Humium has been investigated in some detail. Traces are found in milk (22) and in the tissues of the newborn rat (25). However, studies indicate that if this element is needed extremely small quantities must be available since one microgram in the milk diet employed in one investigation is sufficient to promote normal growth (26).

Silicon of course is necessary for the growth of certain plants (27), and is a fairly common constituent of most tissues (24, 25) and milk (22). No studies have been reported dealing with its indispensability for Mammalia.

Bromine is present in rather large quantities in the blood, urine and tissues (26). There is no evidence available that this element is or is not an indispensable one, a problem which should be studied.

Arsenic, too, is found in tissues and milk. Two micrograms a day of this element are sufficient to supply the needs of growing rats (192), rations lower in arsenic content than this have not yet been devised.

Rubidium is a common constituent of blood and tissues (24). No studies have been reported in which a deficiency of this element has been produced. The present writer has shown that rubidium will partially substitute for potassium in a diet deficient in the latter element, since certain lesions are characteristic of potassium deficiency fail to appear when rubidium is added to the diet (94). The substitution is not a complete one, of course.

Cesium has been demonstrated in the retina of the ox (29), but not in milk. The function of cesium in the eye has not been elucidated. When this element is substituted for potassium in a potassium-deficient diet it partially protects the heart and kidneys from the effects of potassium deprivation (94). Another element, *barium*, has been demonstrated in the eye of oxen, where it is present in the choroid in a concentration of 1.5 per cent of total dried tissue (30).

Vanadium which is found in milk (22) but not in the tissues of the newborn rat (25) has been investigated with respect to its indispensability. If this element is necessary it must be present in quantities less than 1.5 parts per million of diet so that much more purified diets will have to be concocted before the question of its indispensability can be settled (31).

Certain other elements are also found in tissues or milk but have not been carefully studied. These include *lead* (32), *lithium* (22), *strontium* (22), *tin* (32) and *titanium* (23).

The above group of elements which is an incomplete listing should give

uricase (176), copper is said to be a constituent of ascorbic acid oxidase (128). Then too, a large group of enzymatic reactions is specifically activated by certain elements. For example, calcium is necessary for the reaction prothrombin \rightarrow thrombin (440), while potassium activates the phosphorylation of creatine (83). Manganese is an important ion for the activity of arginase (166), while magnesium is an integral part of the cocarboxylase system (53). These are but a few examples of the importance of inorganic elements in enzymes and enzymatic reactions. In addition, of course, the presence of iron and copper in certain oxygen carriers should be recalled (128).

ISOTOPES

Mention might be made of the occurrence of elements having the same atomic number but different atomic weights, that is, isotopes. Little investigation has been directed at a study of the possible natural occurrence of the isotopes of various essential elements in the animal organism. These investigations are of some theoretical importance as is exemplified by one such study on the comparison of the distribution of K_{19}^{39} and K_{19}^{41} in *potassium chloride and the tissues of rats* (19). Most of the tissues had the same ratio of the two isotopes as compared with the inorganic compound, with the exception of bone marrow and blood plasma. Here there was a slight but significant increase in the heavier isotope. Whether one isotope of a given element is physiologically more reactive than another must be left for further investigation.

A more important phase of the subject of isotopes is the use of radioactive elements in metabolic studies. Such forms of virtually all of the essential elements have been prepared and are being utilized. Some examples of their use will be cited in the pages which follow.

UBIQUITOUS ELEMENTS OF UNKNOWN FUNCTION

As was noted above there is a group of elements whose presence is indicated in the organism by chemical methods of examination but whose indispensability has not yet been proven. Although a few of these elements may be shown to be essential at some later date it is likely that most to be discussed are ingested with the food or inhaled into the lungs and are therefore purely fortuitous. The more important of these will be mentioned below, the data are based for the most part on spectrographic analyses of tissues and milk.

Since *boron* is essential for the growth of plants (764) this element has been investigated with respect to its indispensability for animals. Several independent investigations have failed to reveal any evidence that boron is an essential element for the rat, and the conclusion must be drawn that if

is available on others. It has been shown for instance that sodium will partially replace potassium in the tissues of animals depleted in the latter element (78). It is possible that sodium attempts to correct the acid base balance of the cells, certain other functions of potassium, such as the maintenance of the integrity of heart muscle and kidney, do not appear to be affected however. Two other elements of this group, rubidium and cesium more nearly replace potassium at least for a short time (94). When the former is added to a potassium-deficient diet, the characteristic necrosis of myocardial fibers and changes in the renal tubular epithelium fail to appear. The animals die however. Cesium, which has a higher atomic weight than rubidium only partially protects against cardiac and renal damage. Since boron and potassium seem to be inter-related in plant metabolism observations have been made on rats placed on potassium deficient diets to which boron has been added (95). From the data reported weight gain is better in the animals whose potassium depleted diets contain boron than those whose rations do not contain the latter element. The present writer has failed to confirm these observations, however and further finds that characteristic lesions appear in the myocardium and kidney of animals on a potassium deficient diet supplemented with boron (652).

Bone of course, furnishes another excellent example of the interchangeability of its constituents. Strontium, magnesium bismuth and lead may replace calcium in the inorganic structure of bone. Substitution of the latter element is of great clinical significance in the X-ray diagnosis of lead poisoning particularly in children (191). Here there is an increase in the number and size of the spicules of calcified and plumbified cartilagenous matrix material. Inasmuch as there is a fairly large quantity of lead present and since the absorption coefficient for X-rays varies approximately as the fourth power of the atomic number of an element it is obvious that such a region will produce a bright zone at the cartilage shaft junction of the bone in the roentgenogram.

THE ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS AND THE PERIODIC TABLE

It is probably premature to attempt any explanation of the relationship of the nutritionally essential inorganic elements to their places in the periodic table. The subject is an interesting one however and has aroused no amount of philosophic speculation. A periodic table of all the elements is presented in Table II. The indispensable elements are printed in bold face, those which are indispensable for plants in italics, those which are ubiquitous in normal type, while those which have not been found in the organism are in small type. It is only obvious that many which are in the indispensable group are found on either side that is in the most reactive portions of the periodic table. But this does not aid in explaining the place of lithium which

some idea of our knowledge at this time. Undoubtedly, as more precise methods are developed, some of the elements just enumerated may be shown to be indispensable. The use of the hydroponic technique to grow food-stuffs in media uncontaminated by certain elements would seem to be worthy of application to this problem (214).

INTERRELATIONS OF THE ELEMENTS

An interesting aspect of the study of the dispensible and indispensable elements in nutrition is that phase which deals with the substitution of one for another in physiological processes. A good deal is known of those elements comprising the mineral earth group in this regard but little information

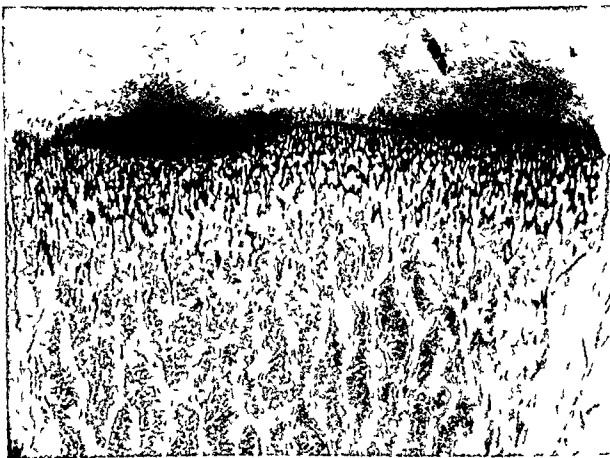


FIGURE 5. An Example of the Interrelation of the Elements. This is a section from the cartilage shaft junction of a rib from a colored girl two years of age who ate the paint from her dolls for two months. She had the usual clinical story of convulsions, lead line in the bones by x-ray, elevated blood lead (5 mgm. per cent), increased CFI pressure and positive Pandey. At autopsy, characteristic intranuclear inclusion bodies were found in the liver and kidney together with widespread changes in the central nervous system. The bone shows a tremendous increase in the zone of cartilaginous matrix material. Compare with the normal Figure 27, page 10. This zone is composed of lead which is partially replacing calcium in this region. The persistence of such a dense zone may be due both to a continued ingestion of lead and an inability of the organism to destroy such tissue as readily as possible. H. and E. x15 (191).

hemorrhage, prolongation of the coagulation time, inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract and osteoporosis.

Biochemical Relationships Besides its major role as a component of the skeletal system where more than ninety percent of the organism's total calcium is found, the ions of this element are necessary for certain well-known physiological processes. Shortly after Ringer (37) announced the importance of calcium in the contraction of heart muscle, its role in the coagulation of the blood was demonstrated (38). The mechanism of calcium ions in this phenomenon is still somewhat obscure, although an hypothesis that the element is necessary to unite two factors, A and B, to form prothrombin promises to clear up some of the divergences of opinion (440). The effect of calcium ions on the irritability of nerve and muscle and its relation to tetany should be recalled. There is some experimental evidence that calcium controls the permeability of capillaries by virtue of its enhancement of the solubility of "intercellular cement substance," which may be a calcium proteinate (40-41).

Pathological Effects Despite the importance of calcium for the organism, knowledge of the tissue changes associated with deficiency of this element are woefully inadequate. Low calcium rickets has of course been produced although no descriptions are available in animals whose diets also contain optimal amounts of vitamin D. The general pathology of rickets is discussed elsewhere (page 104). Aside from chemical alterations which will be summarized below, calcium deficiency in both rats and dogs leads to hemorrhage lesions of the gastrointestinal tract and of course, rickets.

The most severe calcium deficiency has been reported in rats by Boelter and Greenberg (42-43). When such animals are placed on a diet containing only 0.01 percent calcium, growth is retarded in from four to five weeks and after seven to ten weeks the animals exhibit a generalized decreased sensitivity and reactivity. Coincident with this the serum calcium falls to about five milligrams per hundred centimeters, tetany however, does not appear. Paralysis of the hind legs may be noted and, when the deficient animals are stimulated by galvanic shocks collapse occurs. Sixty percent of the rats succumb by the twenty-third week. At autopsy widespread hemorrhages are found in the tissues, extravasation of blood is prominent in the nervous system especially in those animals which exhibited paralysis before death. Hemorrhage and paralysis are common in the young born of calcium-deficient females (39) and bleeding is also a prominent feature of the calcium-deficient syndrome reported in dogs (36). It is unfortunate that microscopic studies have not yet been reported in these two species, since it would be of interest to determine if possible whether there is actual damage to capillary endothelium or whether the hemorrhages are incident to normal trauma to vessels. That the former may be the case is suggested by the work

Table II
ABRIDGED PERIODIC TABLE OF THE ELEMENTS

| GROUP | I | II | III | IV | V | VI | VII | VIII |
|--------|----|----|-----|----|----|----|-----|----------|
| PERIOD | | | | | | | | |
| 1 | H | | | | | | | |
| | Li | Be | B | C | N | O | F | |
| 2 | Na | Mg | Al | Si | P | S | Cl | |
| 3 | K | Ca | Sc | Ti | V | Cr | Mn | Fe Co Ni |
| | Cu | Zn | Ga | Ge | As | Se | Br | |
| 4 | Rb | Sr | Y | Zr | Nb | Mo | | |
| | Ag | Cd | In | Sn | Sb | Te | I | |
| 5 | Cs | Ba | | | | | | |

is toxic and beryllium which appears to be inactive. The reason for the appearance of the essential elements in the periodic table has been explained on the basis of subshell of transition, atomic number and rank of the elements (787). Whether such an explanation is a valid one remains to be seen.

Calcium*

Historical Innumerable experiments utilizing calcium-deficient diets have been reported. For the most part, however, the rations which were employed have been deficient not only in calcium but in other essential nutrients as well. In 1937 Martin (36) prepared a diet adequate in other respects but containing only thirty parts of calcium per million. The characteristic syndrome which develops in dogs fed this ration consists of widespread

*Since life is impossible for Mammalia without carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen these elements will not be considered in this book.

has been corroborated by the appearance of tetany and reduction in serum calcium concentrations.

In summary, experimental calcium deficiency leads to a derangement of blood coagulation and of the integrity of capillary epithelium. Tissue changes consisting of ulceration of the stomach, catarrhs and parathyroid enlargement have been described.

Calcium Deficiency in Man The most dramatic pathologic manifestation of calcium deficiency in the human rickets and osteomalacia—are described in the section dealing with vitamin D (page 104). Another form of calcium deficiency which is followed by disastrous results in both man and animals is of course produced by removal of the parathyroid glands.

Magnesium

Historical The spectacular syndrome of magnesium deficiency in the rat was first reported by McCollum and his co-workers in 1931 (47). Subsequent studies by the Johns Hopkins investigators and others have aided in clarifying some of the changes which take place in the animal organism when dietary magnesium is restricted.

Biochemical Relationships Magnesium is widely distributed in the tissues where its intracellular concentration is only secondary to potassium. The greatest concentrations are found in the bones although this cation accounts for only 0.5 to 0.7 percent of the ash (48). Magnesium is also present in plasma where it furnishes only a very small proportion of the basic ions (49). The irritability of muscle and nerve is affected by changes in concentrations of magnesium; excesses produce narcosis (50) while decreases lead to hyperirritability (51). In addition magnesium ions like those in certain other elements such as potassium and zinc are necessary for the activity of certain enzymes for instance phosphatase (52) and cocarboxylase (53) (489) although this latter action is not entirely specific since manganese will substitute for it. Magnesium appears to participate in virtually every phosphorylating mechanism.

Pathological Effects In rats (54) and dogs (55) placed on a diet containing only 0.18 percent magnesium McCollum et al have described the development of a specific syndrome characterized by dilatation of the cutaneous vessels, hyperirritability and convulsive seizures. The latter may be precipitated by external stimuli of various types. The first attack proves fatal in about eighty percent of rats or dogs. The following description graphically portrays the course of one of the seizures. The excitable animal (rat) startled by sound races at rapid speed in a wide circle until

of Chambers who has presented evidence that "intercellular cement substance" may be a calcium protein complex, if this is true one would suppose that there is actual damage to capillaries in calcium deficient animals (40-41). The explanation of hemorrhages in calcium deficiency is analogous to the situation in vitamin K deficiency where a similar question remains to be settled (page 128).

Boelter and Greenberg (42) have not described any abnormalities in the gastrointestinal tract of the rat, however, other observations in this species are not in agreement since lesions are described in the antrum of the stomach though not in the fundus or rumen (44), such changes consist of hyperplasia of the lining epithelium with necrosis and hemorrhage. It is of interest that in dogs an "inflamed hemorrhagic gastric and intestinal mucosa with occasional ulceration" has been described (36).

The reproduction of rats on a calcium low diet has also been studied (39). Fertility rapidly decreases and the animals soon fail to mate. In addition in those females which give birth to young there is insufficient milk to nourish their offspring. Whether these abnormalities are the effects of inanition are questions which remain to be investigated.

A most interesting observation is that moderate amounts of calcium salts injected into normal rats are perfectly innocuous while intravenous administration of similar quantities into calcium deficient animals results in rupture of the right ventricle of the heart (42).

The neurological disturbances of calcium deficient animals are not at all clear. Tetany does not appear to occur but paralysis, particularly of the hind legs has been noted in both rats (42) and dogs (36). In addition tonic clonic convulsions are said to occur in the latter but not the former species. Studies both physiological and anatomical of the nervous tissues of calcium deficient animals are greatly to be desired.

Several other miscellaneous effects of calcium deficiency have been described and should be studied further. In the rat unpurified, low-calcium diets lead to an increase in size of the parathyroid glands, the change is said to be due to both hyperplasia and hypertrophy of the cells, an increase in the number of osmophilic cells and in the complexity of the golgi apparatus have also been noted (45). Such alterations are, of course, in keeping with the current concepts of parathyroid activity in relation to levels of blood calcium and explain the increased activity of these glands in cases of renal insufficiency in which the levels of serum calcium may be reduced.

When rabbits are placed on a low calcium diet lens opacities have been noted (46). Such changes in the lens may be observed during the second week of the deficiency and consist ophthalmoscopically as slits, vacuoles and dots near the equator of the lens. The opacities then progress out toward the anterior and posterior suture lines. Calcium deficiency in such animals

leaps into the air at the same time spinning literally several times, or it may 'curl up' with marked flexion of all extremities, or it may do neither. There is marked cyanosis. Associated with the convulsive seizure is regurgitation of the stomach contents into the esophagus and mouth as sacrifice experiments during this period have shown.

Within a short time the animal rears from the dorsal or lateral recumbent position in an attempt to stand but its extremities will not support it. The animal buries its head in its outstretched fore limbs and propels itself forward entirely by its hind limbs which however are so extended with paws hyperextended that the dorsal, not the plantar surface bears the weight. Instead of forward motion fine tremors may appear over the body. Throughout this stage the eyeballs are retracted.

Following the convulsive stage comes the recovery stage doubtless dependent on exhaustion. During this period there is moderate cyanosis of skin, coldness of the extremities, lacrimations from the dull, shrunken eyes, clamping of the jaws and drooling from the mouth. A hemorrhage may issue from the nose and orbit and bloody frothy fluid consisting largely of regurgitated stomach contents mixed with blood may bubble from the mouth. No urinary or fecal incontinence is seen during the attack."

Microscopic examination of the nervous tissues of magnesium-deficient animals have not been reported. Studies of the action of certain drugs on magnesium-deficient rats have lead Tufts and Greenberg (56) to conclude that the site of action of the sensory stimuli which produce the seizures is in the midbrain. These investigators feel that tetany resulting from calcium or magnesium deficiency differ since the muscle spasms in the animals depleted in the former cation are abolished by curare while those deprived of magnesium are not. In view of our inadequate understanding of the true nature of tetany it would seem unwise to argue that magnesium deficiency can or cannot lead to this syndrome. It is of interest, however, that the electrical threshold is reduced in magnesium-deficient rats as it is in tetany resulting from other causes.

Chemical studies on magnesium-deficient animals have shown an early and an abrupt fall in serum magnesium from a normal of 2.96 milligrams percent to 0.81 milligrams percent (57). After this initial fall the serum magnesium slowly rises. As would be expected the urinary excretion of the ion is greatly diminished, there is a concomitant retention of calcium (58). Certain other abnormalities in blood chemistry have been interpreted to result from a general nutritive failure since such changes occur later in the deficiency, for instance increased cholesterol and decreased fatty acid values (57) together with a reduction in serum phosphatase activity (59). Changes in the bones and teeth will be discussed below.

McCollum et al (54) have called attention to the appearance of tachy-

it finally falls on its side. The entire body of the animal is now rigid with head stretched back, fore limbs extended at three upper joints and flexed at the metacarpophalangeal joint and hind limbs extended backward. So fixed are the jaws that often the tongue is perforated by the clenched teeth. The skin presents a waxy appearance. All respiratory movements cease during the attack and return with the relaxation of the musculature. Priapism may appear at this time and persist until death.

This stage of spasticity is succeeded by a period of relaxation lasting only a very short time. While still lying on its side the animal exhibits



FIGURE 4. Magnesium "Tetany" (6). From right to left are shown several stages of a convulsive seizure which characterizes magnesium deficiency. In the first stage there is great spasticity with hyperextension. This is followed by relaxation which may be in turn followed by rigidity and opisthotonos. The animal then may either recover or die. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan and the *Archives of Dermatology and Syphilology*.)

twitching in various regions, or paddles rapidly with all extremities. Coincident with this behavior the animal's eyeballs become more prominent, the ears stiffen and project backwards against the side of the head and the fur stands erect. Then reappears a tonic spasm in which the rigid body assumes a typical position with the fore limbs pressed tightly against the thorax, fore paws clenched and hind extremities extended. This spastic condition may give way to clonic contractions in which the fore limbs are alternately drawn up to the chest and extended from the body. Next the animal suddenly



FIGURE 5. Magnesium Deficiency (63). *A* This shows extensive edema of the digits and the plantae of the paws. In addition there is ulceration of the surface of the latter. *B* Skin from front tail to show hyperkeratosis, acanthosis and vacuolization of some of the epithelial cells. There is diffuse cellular infiltration in the corium. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan and the *Archives of Dermatology and Syphilology*.)

cardia in acute magnesium deficiency develops, electrocardio-graphic studies in rats reveal sinoauricular block (56)

Microscopic examination of the tissues of magnesium depleted rats have revealed changes in the skin kidneys liver, and teeth. Dilatation of the cutaneous vessels is one of the prominent features of magnesium deficiency which McCollum and Orent (47) first described, such hyperemia lasts about a week. In those animals which survive the ensuing convulsions edema of the paws and ears as well as changes in the skin may be noted. Careful studies of the pathogenesis of the cutaneous lesions have been reported by Sullivan and Evans (60). From the fourth to the eighth day of the deficiency erythema and edema become prominent in the ears, paws and trunk. Microscopically the vessels of the cutis are dilated, fluid and cellular infiltration are observed in the corium. At this stage there is no alteration in the epidermis nor any loss of hair. Later, however, a loosely limited hyperkeratosis appears and is followed by a patchily distributed acanthosis. Individual cells become vacuolated and display pyknotic nuclei. No changes can be detected in the sebaceous and coil glands. Sullivan and Evans (60) are unable to substantiate a claim (56) that signs of magnesium deficiency are affected by the vitamin B content of the diet nor can the contentions of McCordle et al be confirmed. On the basis of spectrographic (61) and micro-incineration (62) studies, the latter investigators find a decrease in the magnesium content of the skin in cases of human neurodermatitis. From this they postulate that neurodermatitis and magnesium deficiency are identical or similar diseases. Sullivan and Evans (63) have conclusively shown that the pathologic manifestations of these two syndromes are quite different.

The renal lesions in magnesium-deficient animals have been inadequately studied. The picture is further complicated by the use of diets which may not have furnished all necessary nutrients. The following changes have been noted: extreme degeneration of tubular and glomerular epithelium with calcareous deposits in the lumens of the tubules (64); calcium deposits in the straight and collecting tubules which lead to cystic dilatation of the structures above (65); "extreme degeneration of the tubules and glomeruli and deposits of calcareous material in areas of degeneration" (60). Increased urinary volume and proteinuria but no hematuria or casts have been observed. Hypoproteinemia ensues and may be followed by edema (66). More complete studies of the renal changes are much to be desired. Alterations which have been described in the liver are even more fragmentary and difficult to evaluate. "hyperemia perivascular edema and occasional disintegration of liver cells" have been recorded (60).

Studies of magnesium deficiency by the Johns Hopkins investigators revealed changes at another site the teeth. Kline et al (67) noted extreme hypertrophy of the gums the result of subepithelial connective tissue pro-

data concerning the potassium content of representative tissues of the rat the paper of Orent-Keiles and McCollum (78) should be consulted. This element may be demonstrated in muscle by histochemical methods. The procedure which employs sodium cobaltinitrite should prove useful in studies of experimental potassium deficiency (79).

Because of its presence within cells a great many physiological roles have been ascribed to potassium. Among the most important functions of this cation are its relationship to the metabolism of muscle and nerve. The participation of the potassium of extracellular fluid in the contraction of cardiac muscle was demonstrated in 1882 by Ringer (37) who showed that this cation reduces contractions and favors the relaxation of cardiac muscle fibers. Furthermore small variations in serum potassium are said to affect the response of the heart to vagal stimulation; here sensitivity is increased by a rise in potassium content of the extracellular fluid (81). Potassium is likewise concerned with the metabolism of striated muscle; for in familial periodic paralysis serum potassium falls during an attack; there is not, however, a concomitant increase in the excretion of this cation (82). *In vitro* experiments have shown that potassium is necessary for the phosphorylation of creatine (83). When nerve is stimulated there is a loss of potassium. The implications of this are not clear. Potassium accelerates the synthesis of an acetylcholine by brain tissue *in vitro* (84). These, then, are a few representative examples of how potassium functions in the organism, many other manifestations of the action of potassium have been reviewed by Fenn (85).

Pathological Effects. Both physiological and morphological effects of potassium deficiency have been described in rats (86, 87, 88), mice (89), dogs (90) and calves (91, 92). In the former species 0.17 percent potassium in the diet appears to be the minimal amount which will support optimal growth (88). The tissues which are the sites of damage are the heart, voluntary muscle (dogs only) and kidneys.

Using diets containing only 0.01 percent potassium and adequate in all other respects, the present writer in association with Orent-Keiles and McCollum (87) has described disturbances in growth and lesions in the heart and kidneys of rats. Animals, acutely deficient may die in the third or fourth week; rats which have been maintained on a ration somewhat less deficient in potassium live for as long as three hundred and twenty-seven days.

Heart. Grossly, after several weeks on the potassium-low regimen tiny gray opacities are observed in the ventricles of the heart. Microscopic studies of the myocardium reveal lesions in animals which have been on the deficient diet for as little as eight days. The myocardial fibers at this time lose their striation and become hyaline and necrotic; coincident with these changes the interstitial spaces are infiltrated by leukocytes. These lesions range in extent from tiny foci which early in the course of the deficiency involve

liferation Striations were noted in the dentine, as well as alterations in the ameloblastic layer. The dental structures have been carefully studied by competent oral histologists (68, 69, 70, 71, 72) and the following changes seem well established. An early manifestation is retardation of dentine formation particularly that of the labial surface, which is half or less the width of the lingual dentine. Peculiar striations in the dentine appear which may be due to variations of growth similar to those which are seen in the bones. The odontoblasts are responsible for the changes in the dentine since these cells become atrophic and are inclosed on all sides by dentine. In a similar fashion ameloblasts atrophy, as a result enamel formation is retarded and the resultant covering is hypoplastic. Calcified stones are also a prominent feature in the pulp of magnesium-depleted teeth. Chemical studies have shown no great decrease in the absolute magnesium content of the rat's incisor (73). This is unlike the situation in bone where magnesium has been shown to decrease and calcium to increase in the early stages of the deficiency (74). In this respect magnesium may be unique in that it seems to be able to leave the bones without destruction of the latter taking place.

Histological studies of the growing bones of magnesium deficient animals have not been reported. Bone apparently serves as a reservoir for magnesium, when the blood level falls magnesium is made available and is replaced by calcium (75).

In summary, magnesium deficiency in experimental animals leads to disturbances of the neuromuscular and vascular systems and changes in the teeth, liver and kidneys. The latter two organs require more study.

Magnesium Deficiency in Man The syndrome of magnesium deficiency in the human must be very rare. However, a case of suspected deficiency of this cation has been reported in a child (76). Convulsions were observed at seven months of age but gradually decreased, at the age of 3 there was dizziness and by the age of 6 years a tremor had become worse so that he was unable to write. Tetany was noted and the plasma magnesium was found to be low. Magnesium therapy led to disappearance of dizziness and tremor which returned when treatment was discontinued. More cases must be observed before this isolated report can be accepted as evidence of magnesium tetany in man.

Potassium

Historical The indispensability of potassium was reported first in 1918 by Osborne and Mendel (77) who demonstrated a retardation of growth in rats which had been placed on a diet containing only 0.033 percent potassium.

Biochemical Relationships All tissues contain intracellular potassium. For

until virtually exhausted. The alterations in the myocardium tended to be more extensive in those animals made to exercise than in controls not so treated (93). Inasmuch as sodium has been shown to enter the tissues to replace potassium when the organism is depleted of the latter element (78),



FIGURE 7 Heart. Chronic Potassium Deficiency (87). Myocardium of animal which had been on a potassium deficient diet for 377 days. There has been widespread destruction of muscle fibers with subsequent replacement by connective tissue. Though a few inflammatory cells are present, most of the nuclei which can be observed are those of fibroblasts. H. and E. $\times 150$.

investigations have been made in order to yield information on the replacement of this ion by other elements, such as rubidium, cesium and boron. When rubidium is substituted for potassium in a potassium-deficient diet, myocardial lesions do not appear although the animals die after a short while (94). Cesium protects the heart of some animals but not all (94). Low potassium diets supplemented with boron as boric acid or borax are said to permit longer survival of animals than those without added boron (95); the present writer has been unable to confirm this (652).

Since identical myocardial necrosis has been observed in thiamine-deficient animals (506) the effect of an acute deficiency in both potassium and thiamine has been studied (96). Lesions fail to appear even though the animals may live as long as thirty-one days. The reason for this protective effect is not clear and requires further investigation.



FIGURE 6 Heart. Acute Potassium Deficiency (87). *A* Small focus in wall of left ventricle of rat on potassium deficient diet for nine days. There is destruction of a few of the myocardial fibers with infiltration of cells most of which are mononuclears. Numerous such small foci are found scattered about in the myocardium in the right and left ventricles at this time. H and E. $\times 100$. *B* Section through entire wall of right ventricle of animal on potassium deficient diet for 12 days. This shows more diffuse infiltration and more extensive involvement of the myocardial fibers. H and E. $\times 150$.

only one or two muscle fibers to large areas as much as two low-power microscopic fields in greatest diameter as the deficiency progresses. In some hearts the tissues become diffusely infiltrated with leukocytes and are reminiscent of the lesions encountered in human myocarditis such as that following diphtheria. Alterations are found in both ventricles but are usually scanty in the auricular musculature. Blood vessels are normal as are the epicardium and endocardium, no mural thrombi have been observed. In animals living the longest there is usually an increased proliferation of connective tissue at the sites of necrosis of the myocardial fibers, so that scars of varying sizes are produced. There is a reduction in the potassium content of the hearts of deficient rats (78).

The effect of exercise on the development of cardiac lesions has been studied by suspending weights to the thorax of rats and having them swim

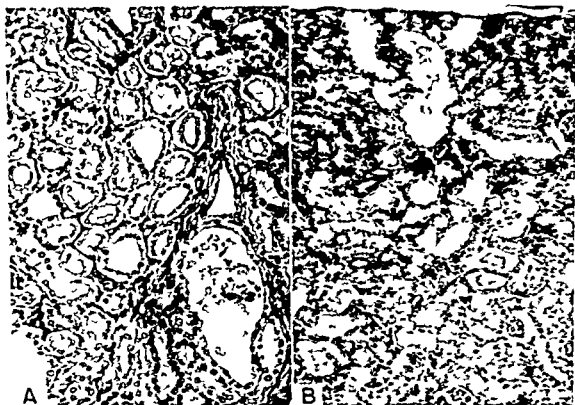


FIGURE 8 Kidney Acute Potassium Deficiency (87) A This rat had been on a potassium deficient diet for 13 days. Note vacuolated cells in which fat may be stained and a dilated tubule which contains desquamated cells and debris. Such tubular epithelium becomes necrotic and is sloughed off into the tubule. H and E, $\times 200$ (Courtesy of the *American Journal of Pathology*). B Subacute potassium deficiency. This rat had been on a potassium deficient diet for five weeks. Note numerous dilated tubules lined by flattened regenerated epithelium. Some contain hyaline staining material. H and E, $\times 150$.

cells become necrotic. Cellular debris and fat globules are then found in the lumens of the tubules. As early as the fourteenth day of the deficiency the tubules are found lined by flattened regenerating epithelium. As time goes on there are many tubules lined by this type of epithelium and in some tubules the epithelium has become calcified. Calcareous casts are found in the lumens of the tubules. No glomerular lesions have been observed nor are there any changes in the renal blood vessels.

Inclusion of rubidium in a potassium-deficient diet seems to protect the kidneys of all the rats so studied by the present writer; cesium protects to a lesser extent (94). Excessive amounts of desoxycorticosterone as well as affecting the heart produce renal changes, lesions similar to those described as a result of potassium deficiency have been observed in rats and are made a little more severe as the potassium content of the diet is reduced (103).

In summary there is evidence from experimental animals that potassium deficiency leads to necrosis of the myocardial fibers and necrosis of renal

An observation intimately related to potassium and its importance to the integrity of the myocardium is that similar cardiac lesions may be produced by injection of desoxycorticosterone. Such an observation is explained by the well-known action of this adrenal hormone to promote the excretion of potassium and facilitate the retention of sodium, lesions similar to those of potassium deficiency have been produced in rats by this means (97). When potassium-deficient animals are treated with cortical hormone, lesions appear sooner and are more extensive than when either one or the other procedures are employed (98). The heart muscle of animals treated with cortical hormone has a lower potassium content than normal (97). It is said that the hearts of animals treated with desoxycorticosterone develop lesions similar to those of rheumatic fever (99). Nothing resembling an Aschoff body has ever been encountered in our own potassium-deficient material nor do Selve's photomicrographs substantiate such a contention.

Lesions resulting from potassium deficiency have been described in the myocardium of mice (89) as well as in the Purkinje network of the hearts of calves (92). Electrocardiographic changes substantiate morphological observation in the latter species (91).

In contrast to the cardiac lesions which have been produced in rats on low potassium diets, no alterations have been noted in the skeletal musculature (87) although the potassium content of such muscle is reduced (78). Even in rats which are forced to exercise strenuously, no structural alterations have been observed (93). Chemical studies however indicate that exercise *per se* does not significantly lower the potassium content of voluntary muscles (100). It is therefore, not unexpected to find that no lesions have been produced in striated muscle of the rat by injections of desoxycorticosterone (101). It is of some interest to note that when rats are simultaneously depleted of both thiamine and potassium necroses of the skeletal muscles appear (96). In contrast to this species paralysis has been described in dogs on purified diets of low potassium content (90). It is of further interest that periodic muscular weakness occurs when dogs are given excessive amounts of desoxycorticosterone.

Kidney The only other tissue which is the site of injury in potassium-deficient animals is the kidney. Changes have been described in both rats (87) and mice (89). In the former species microscopic lesions have been observed as early as the eighth day of the deficiency. After several weeks the kidneys grossly appear pale and swollen. As time goes on the organs increase in size and soon develop a finely pitted surface. On microscopic examination the initial change to be observed is fatty infiltration of the tubular epithelium. This begins with the appearance of small sudanophilic, non doubly refractile globules in the cytoplasm between the basement membrane and nucleus. This deposition of fat continues and soon the epithelial

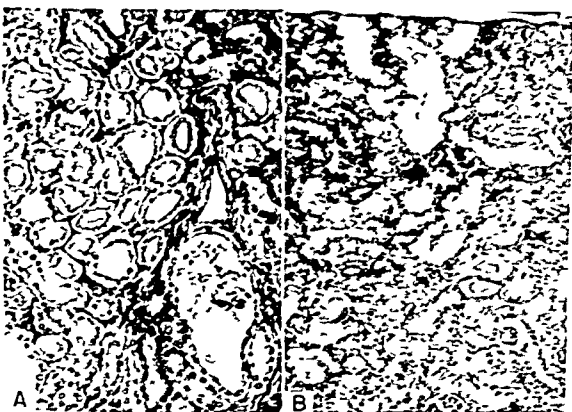


FIGURE 6. Kidney. Acute Potassium Deficiency. (87) A. This rat had been on a potassium deficient diet for 15 days. Note vacuolated cells in which fat may be stained and a dilated tubule which contains desquamated cells and debris. Such tubular epithelium becomes necrotic and is sloughed off into the tubule. (H and E, $\times 100$) (Courtesy of the *American Journal of Pathology*.) B. Subacute potassium deficiency. This rat had been on a potassium deficient diet for five weeks. Note numerous dilated tubules lined by flattened regenerating epithelium. Some connective tissue staining in interstitial. (H and E, $\times 100$)

cells become necrotic. Cellular debris and fat globules are then found in the lumens of the tubules. As early as the fourteenth day of the deficiency the tubules are found lined by flattened regenerating epithelium. As time goes on there are many tubules lined by this type of epithelium, and in some tubules the epithelium has become calcified. Calcareous casts are found in the lumens of the tubules. No glomerular lesions have been observed, nor are there any changes in the renal blood vessels.

Inclusion of rubidium in a potassium-deficient diet seems to protect the kidneys of all the rats so studied by the present writer. Cesium protects to a lesser extent (94). Excessive amounts of desoxycorticosterone, as well as affecting the heart, produce renal changes. Lesions similar to those described as a result of potassium deficiency have been observed in rats and are made a little more severe as the potassium content of the diet is reduced (103).

In summary, there is evidence from experimental animals that potassium deficiency leads to necrosis of the myocardial fibers and necrosis of renal

An observation intimately related to potassium and its importance to the integrity of the myocardium is that similar cardiac lesions may be produced by injection of desoxycorticosterone. Such an observation is explained by the well-known action of this adrenal hormone to promote the excretion of potassium and facilitate the retention of sodium, lesions similar to those of potassium deficiency have been produced in rats by this means (97). When potassium-deficient animals are treated with cortical hormone, lesions appear sooner and are more extensive than when either one or the other procedures are employed (98). The heart muscle of animals treated with cortical hormone has a lower potassium content than normal (97). It is said that the hearts of animals treated with desoxycorticosterone develop lesions similar to those of rheumatic fever (99). Nothing resembling an Aschoff body has ever been encountered in our own potassium-deficient material, nor do Selye's photomicrographs substantiate such a contention.

Lesions resulting from potassium deficiency have been described in the myocardium of mice (89) as well as in the Purkinje network of the hearts of calves (92). Electrocardiographic changes substantiate morphological observation in the latter species (91).

In contrast to the cardiac lesions which have been produced in rats on low potassium diets no alterations have been noted in the skeletal musculature (87), although the potassium content of such muscle is reduced (78). Even in rats which are forced to exercise strenuously no structural alterations have been observed (93). Chemical studies, however, indicate that exercise *per se* does not significantly lower the potassium content of voluntary muscles (100). It is therefore not unexpected to find that no lesions have been produced in striated muscle of the rat by injections of desoxycorticosterone (101). It is of some interest to note that when rats are simultaneously depleted of both thiamine and potassium necroses of the skeletal muscles appear (96). In contrast to this species, paralysis has been described in dogs on purified diets of low potassium content (90). It is of further interest that periodic muscular weakness occurs when dogs are given excessive amounts of desoxycorticosterone.

Kidney The only other tissue which is the site of injury in potassium-deficient animals is the kidney. Changes have been described in both rats (87) and mice (89). In the former species microscopic lesions have been observed as early as the eighth day of the deficiency. After several weeks the kidneys grossly appear pale and swollen. As time goes on the organs increase in size and soon develop a finely pitted surface. On microscopic examination the initial change to be observed is fatty infiltration of the tubular epithelium. This begins with the appearance of small sudanophilic non doubly refractile globules in the cytoplasm between the basement membrane and nucleus. This deposition of fat continues and soon the epithelial

stances of potassium deficiency in chronic nephritis (782) and diabetes mellitus (783) have been reported. Such were characterized by muscular paralysis, electrocardiographic changes and decreases in the concentration of serum potassium. The etiology is not entirely clear, though diuresis and glycogenesis appear to be important in the latter, while the possible inability of the kidneys to form ammonia to excrete in combination with acid radicals was suggested in the former group.

Sodium

Historical. Retardation in growth of rats on synthetic diets of low sodium content was first reported by St. John (106) in 1928; the subject was more extensively studied some years later by Orent-Keiles, Robinson and McCollum (107).

Biochemical Relationships. The majority of sodium in the animal organism is extracellular. This ion accounts for 142 of the 155 milliequivalents per liter of the basic ions of the extracellular fluid (49). Except for evidence that sodium can replace potassium when the tissues are depleted of the latter cation (78) and its importance on the contraction of the heart (37), very little else is known of the functions of this element in the animal organism.

Pathological Effects. Orent-Keiles and McCollum (109) have devised a ration which contains only 0.002 percent sodium. When rats are placed on such a diet, gain in weight during the first few weeks is normal, growth then becomes retarded and in general after eight to ten weeks the animals either fail to gain or begin to lose weight. All are dead by the eighteenth to the twenty-first week. Grossly characteristic changes make their appearance in the eyes between the eighth and tenth week: the corneae become cloudy and the lids appear swollen and lose their hair.

The tissues of such deficient rats have been studied by the present writer in association with Orent-Keiles and McCollum (110). Microscopically, aside from non-specific atrophic changes in the reproductive system, thymus and bone, the only lesions to be found are those of the ocular apparatus. The pathogenesis of these changes has been described as follows: there is progressive dilatation of the ducts of the tarsal or meibomian glands. This is apparently due to obstruction of their openings, since granular pink-staining material is found attached to the lid margins. Dilatation of the ducts accounts for the swelling of the lids which is noted grossly. When the dilatation becomes extreme, there is atrophy of the glandular elements. Associated with these changes is an alteration in the character of the epithelium of the inner lining of the lids. Normal columnar and goblet cells are re-



FIGURE 9 Kidney Chronic Potassium Deficiency (87) Kidney of a rat which had been on a potassium deficient diet for 84 days. Section shows dilated tubules along the cortex and prominent dilated structures at the cortico medullary junction. H and E $\times 16$

tubular epithelium. No other alterations have been noted other than those which may be ascribed to involution.

Potassium Deficiency in Man It is very unlikely that potassium deficiency in the human ever occurs as a result of inadequate dietary intake. Conditioned potassium deficiency may be encountered however. It will be recalled that injections of desoxycorticosterone lead to excessive excretion of potassium. Toxic effects have been noted in man as evidenced by electrocardiographic changes (104) and in one instance fresh necroses have been found in the myocardium (105). It will be recalled that a decrease in serum potassium occurs during attacks of familial periodic paralysis (82), electrocardiographic changes have been described in patients suffering from this disease (757).

A conditioned potassium deficiency occurs in infants with severe dehydration and diarrhea. Other elements are of course lost as well but it has been shown that the parenteral administration of potassium ions causes more marked improvement than if this element is not given (765). Isolated in-

The effects of sodium deprivation have been studied in dogs in which observations were made over a period of eight weeks. Loss of weight, dryness of the skin and loss of hair are said to occur, the eyes show no changes (112).

In summary, sodium deficiency appears to lead to ocular changes in rats, the principal alterations are vascularization of the cornea and obstruction of the tarsal glands.

Sodium Deficiency in Man Sodium deficiency in the human probably never occurs in an uncomplicated form, usually there is a concomitant deficiency of chloride as well. Severe depletion of the sodium and chloride stores with an accompanying loss of water occurs in Addison's Disease which is due to destruction of the adrenal cortex with consequent inadequate cortical hormone production. The urinary excretion of sodium and chloride is extreme under such circumstances. Inasmuch as the adrenal cortical hormone or hormones appear to have functions other than those dealing with salt metabolism there are no signs or symptoms which can be entirely ascribed to a deficiency *per se* of sodium and/or chloride.

Another instance of excessive loss of these two elements is found when there is profuse sweating. Experimental sodium chloride deficiency has been studied by McCance (768) who in himself and a group of fellow subjects has described anorexia, nausea, fatigue and a sense of exhaustion and muscle cramps. As would be expected there was hemoconcentration. All such manifestations of the deficiency disappear following the ingestion of salt and water.

Sulfur

Historical The element sulfur has been known from earliest times. Deficiency of inorganic sulfur is dwarfed by the importance of deficiencies of the sulfur-containing amino acids, methionine and cystine (see page 82). No pointed experiments have been directed at a study of the effects of a deficiency of inorganic sulfur utilizing diets containing varying quantities of the two sulfur amino acids.

Biochemical Relationships Sulfur is found in a wide variety of compounds in the organism and is physiologically one of the most important elements. For instance it occurs in amino acids (methionine, cystine), hormones (estrogens, insulin), a variety of enzymes, certain vitamins (thiamine, biotin), taurine, carbohydrates (chondroitin, sulfuric acid) and lipids (sulfatides).

The functions of ingested inorganic sulfur are not at all clear. The biochemical relationships of organic or amino acid sulfur compounds are

placed by stratified squamous epithelium. In the cornea the initial change is a migration of leukocytes into the substantia propria followed by an ingrowth of capillaries. In the early stages of cellular and vascular infiltration the corneal epithelium shows no change, later however, it becomes keratinized. The cause or causes of the corneal changes are not clear, but are interesting to speculate upon. It is well known that the corneal epithelium is

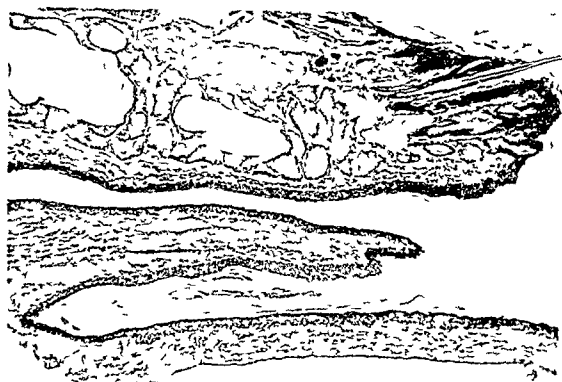


FIGURE 10. Lye Sodium Deficiency (110). Section through anterior segment of the eye of a rat which had been on a sodium deficient diet for 84 days. The upper lid can be seen above with tremendously dilated tarsal glands. The inner lining epithelium is transformed into a stratified squamous type. A similar metaplasia is found in the corneal epithelium. In addition blood vessels and leukocytes are found infiltrating the substantia propria of this structure. H and E. x100.

unique in that it is in contact with an hypertonic environment produced by evaporation of the tears. In the sodium depleted animal, the sodium content of the tears is doubtless reduced with consequent drop to iso- or even hypotonicity. The corneal epithelium conditioned normally to a hypertonic medium may be extremely sensitive to one which approaches that of normal cells. How much of a role absence of the secretions of the meibomian glands plays is fruit for speculation as well.

An incidental observation might be mentioned. When rats are made hypertensive by reduction of kidney tissue the exclusion of sodium from the diet reduces the elevated blood pressure (111), the reason for this is not understood.

Pathological Effects Day and McCollum (114) have reported the preparation of a diet with which to study the effects of phosphorus deficiency, this ration, which contains only 0.017 percent phosphorus has an adequate calcium and vitamin D content. When young rats are placed on the diet there is an extreme retardation in growth and the animals appear unkempt and very inactive. All the tissues of such animals have been studied by the present writer in association with Day and McCollum (115). Aside from the manifestations of profound inanition the only specific gross or microscopic alterations are found in the skeletal system where extreme rickets is present. Due to extensive changes in the ribs, the thorax is greatly deformed and is reduced in capacity. Consequently the lungs become extremely atelectatic so that it is quite apparent that respiratory difficulty contributes in large measure to the fatal outcome which occurs after eight or nine weeks. The thoracic deformities are similar to those which Park and Howland (116) described a number of years ago in rachitic children. Microscopically, the alterations in the bones of phosphorus deficient rats are typical of rickets and are observed after the animals have been on the experimental diet for only one week. In the latter stages of the deficiency, that is, after the sixth or seventh week the skeletal evidences of active rickets become less conspicuous due to the slowing and virtual cessation of growth, in fact in the end the rickets begins to heal. The description of the histological changes will not be detailed here since the pathologic anatomy of rickets is described on page 110.

Metabolic studies (114) of phosphorus-deficient animals reveal continuous negative balance of this anion. Despite this a significant amount of phosphorus is apparently removed from the bones and redeposited in the soft tissues. No appreciable derangements in metabolism or sodium, potassium or magnesium have been noted.

The experimental diet of Schneider and Steenbock (113), referred to above contains somewhat more phosphorus, calcium and vitamin D than that used by the Johns Hopkins investigators. The former workers observed calcium citrate calculi in the kidneys, ureters and bladder of their rats (117). Furthermore they concluded that the vitamin D present in the diet reversed the soft tissue vs. bone preference for phosphorus in favor of the latter tissue, an hypothesis which is of great theoretical interest especially as it relates to the mode of action of vitamin D. The only other change which has been described in the phosphorus-deficient rat is parathyroid hyperplasia (45). The enlargement of the glands is not as marked as that encountered in calcium deficiency. The experiments which have been performed, however, are open to question since purified diets have not been employed and parathyroid hyperplasia does not appear to occur under such circumstances (115).

discussed elsewhere (pages 82-101). When inorganic radioactive sulfur is fed to rats, it does not appear in the cystine of the hair or carcass (33) nor can this species utilize elementary sulfur in lieu of cystine or methionine, for when sulfur is fed to animals deficient in these amino acids, virtually all finds its way into the urine where it is excreted as sulfate (34). Finally, if rats are fed colloidal radioactive sulfur, none can be detected in their body protein (35). Such studies make it apparent that inorganic sulfur cannot be utilized to build or replace sulfur-containing amino acids. However, whether small amounts of inorganic sulfur can be synthesized into utilizable compounds of other types remains a question which as yet has not been answered.

Pathology of Deficiency. From the little evidence that is available, it appears unlikely that inorganic sulfur deficiency can occur; the changes which take place when there is a deficiency of the sulfur-containing amino acids are described elsewhere on page 82.

Phosphorus

History. Because of its widespread distribution, phosphorus has been regarded as an essential nutrient for some time. The first pointed experiments were performed in 1915 by Osborne and Mendel (77) who showed that this element is necessary for growth of rats. The experiments of Sherman and Parphenheimer (3-8) which followed clearly demonstrated the role of phosphorus in the production of rickets. It only remained to show that phosphorus deficiency produced pathological effects when all known nutrients, including vitamin D, were present in the diet, something which was accomplished by Schneider and Greenback (113) in 1930.

Biological Role in the Body. Approximately three-quarters of the body's store of phosphorus is found in the skeletal system. In addition to this important role in the formation of bone salts, phosphorus is also one of the most important, perhaps the most important element, excluding carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen and sulfur, in physiological processes since it is concerned with the liberation of energy for muscular contraction, secretion by the kidney, et cetera. Its functions are too familiar to require anything but brief mention in the carbohydrate cycle and in muscle metabolism, in lipid metabolism (lecithin, cephalin), in protein metabolism (nucleic acids, creatine, ATP, ADP) and as a constituent of certain enzymes (coenzyme B₁₂, flavo-proteins, pyridine nucleotides).

Because of the interrelationships of phosphorus, calcium, vitamin D and the parathyroid hormone, further discussion of phosphorus metabolism will be found in the chapter on vitamin D on page 104.

Chlorine

Historical The indispensability of chlorine in the diet was first shown by Orent-Keiles, Robinson and McCollum in 1937, when rats are placed on a synthetic low-chloride diet they fail to grow in normal fashion (107)

Biochemical Relationships In the organism chloride ions occur principally in the extracellular spaces and account for about two-thirds of the 155 milliequivalents of the acidic constituents of extracellular fluid (49) Chloride, of course, is an important secretory product of the gastric mucosa Strangely enough little else is known of the function of chlorine in the animal organism except for its activation of the salivary enzyme ptyalin

Gersh (79) employing an histochemical method has described the distribution of chloride in voluntary muscle Here it is found only in the intercellular spaces, none is present in the muscle fibers themselves

Pathological Effects Physiological as well as pathological observations have been made by several groups of investigators on chlorine-deficient animals The morphological observations are not adequate, however Using a diet of unknown though low-chloride content Orent-Keiles et al (107) could detect no changes other than a disturbance in growth even after rats had been on the experimental regimen for as long as ninety days Histological studies of such animals were not performed These observations have been confirmed by other investigators using diets with various concentrations of chloride ions (119-120) When a diet containing only .02 percent chloride is utilized there is a retardation in growth together with a reduction in the sodium, potassium and chloride content of the tissues and an increase in calcium and phosphate concentrations When a similar diet containing only .0012 percent chloride is employed (121) rats again fail to gain and dramatically exhibit a conservation of chloride, for after the animals have been on the deficient diet for only a few hours the urinary chloride excretion decreases to virtually zero Compared with controls which excrete 110 to 170 milligrams of chloride per day the deficient animals excrete only .05 to 1.2 mg per day In such rats there also is a reduction of serum chloride from 295 milligrams per hundred milliliters to 252 milligrams and an increase in the carbon dioxide combining power from 58.8 to 72.3 volumes percent However the manifestations of tetany have not been observed It would be interesting to augment the chloride deficiency produced by dietary means with that produced by removal of gastric secretions Cuthbertson and Greenberg (122) have concocted an even lower chloride-deficient diet (2.5 milligrams percent chlorine) and have shown a reduction of the chloride concentration in skin, muscle, liver, kidney, testis, brain, stomach, lungs and

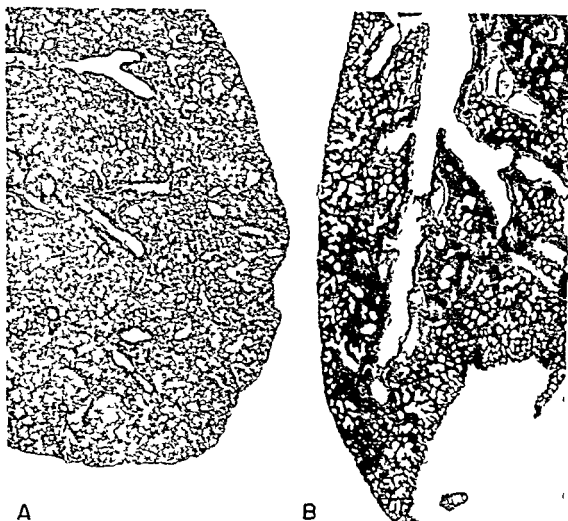


FIGURE 11 A Mechanical Effect of Rickets on the Pulmonary Tissues (116) A Normal lung, which is aerated save for some atelectasis about the peripheral portion a constant phenomenon following opening of the chest B Section of lung from a rat on a phosphorus deficient diet (0.01% percent) for 49 days Due to the extreme decrease in the capacity of the thorax as a result of collapse of the bony cage there is severe atelectasis especially in comparison with 1 which is from a normal control receiving added phosphorus in the deficient diet both H and L, 116

Phosphorus deficiency has been studied in dogs no specific changes other than severe rickets are found (116)

Phosphorus Deficiency in Man Uncomplicated phosphorus deficiency in man is a subject which is difficult to comment upon since evidence for an accompanying calcium and/or vitamin D deficiency cannot usually be ruled out It is possible that certain instances of lead poisoning in children accompanied by rickets may be examples of conditioned phosphorus deficiency as a result of the formation of insoluble compounds in the intestine (386)

reserve, hyperexcitability, and convulsions all of which may be prevented by the administration of chloride ions

Iron

Historical Iron salts are said to have been used by Sydenham during the eighteenth century for the treatment of chlorosis. The full significance of iron for the organism was realized when this element was demonstrated to be an essential component of hemoglobin.

Biochemical Relationships Iron is absorbed in the upper portion of the small intestine (123). Species differences appear to determine whether ferrous or ferric salts are absorbed more readily (124). A most important factor in absorption appears to be the state of the organism's store of this element, if the tissues are depleted iron is rapidly absorbed from the intestinal tract, on the other hand if sufficient quantities are present there is little absorption (123). Clinical studies would seem to indicate that the pH of the gastric juice plays a role in the absorption of iron for in females exhibiting the syndrome of idiopathic hypochromic anemia there is achlorhydria (125). It has further been shown that iron is absorbed more rapidly from acid than from alkaline media. Little excretion of the element takes place by either the alimentary tract or kidneys (126) so that iron has been called a 'one way substance' (127).

Iron occurs in three main portions—as a part of hemoglobin as tissue iron and as storage iron. Keilin (128) has divided the first two types of iron compounds, which have great biological importance, into oxygen carriers and oxidizing catalysts, both of which are iron-porphyrin-protein complexes. To the oxygen carriers belong hemoglobin and myohemoglobin, among the oxidizing catalysts are included the cytochromes catalase, and peroxidase. The third form of iron so-called 'storage iron' occurs mainly as hemosiderin which is thought to be composed of an organic material impregnated with ferric oxide (129).

Iron may be demonstrated in tissues by suitable stains. Hemosiderin exhibits the familiar Prussian Blue reaction. Organic iron, presumably that composing iron-porphyrin-protein complexes, can be demonstrated by treating the section with hot acid alcohol and then staining with ferrocyanide (130).

Pathologic Effects Despite the large literature that has been accumulated on iron deficiency anemias in the human virtually no studies have been reported on pathological changes occurring in the tissues of humans or of experimental animals. Hematological data have been reported in rats (131).

total carcass. The chloride content of the heart and spleen appears to be increased. In such animals an interesting pathological change has been described in the kidneys, where lesions develop as early as one month following the institution of the low-chloride regimen (788). The pathogenesis of the changes in the kidney have been interpreted as follows: due to the

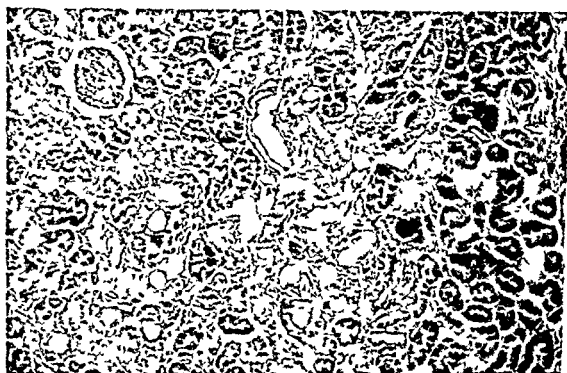


FIGURE 17. Kidney. Chlorine Deficiency (788). Renal tissue from a rat on a chloride deficient (0.05 mm. percent) diet for 56 days. Note dilated tubules lined by flat epithelium imbedded in a connective tissue stroma. The lumens of the tubules contain calcified casts which would eventually have led to obstruction and dilatation of the proximal portion of the tubule. H and E, $\times 150$. (Courtesy of Dr F. Lowenhaupt and Dr D. M. Greenberg.)

all the urine and possible elevation in phosphate concentration in the convoluted and collecting tubules there is a precipitation of calcium salts in these structures. This leads to obstruction of the lumens and irritates a reaction in the tubules and peritubular tissues. Many of the lumens may become obstructed which leads to a shell filled with fluid consisting of a much thinned cortex with pelvic epithelium forming folds separated in part from the compressed cortical zone. No lesions were found in the other tissues of these animals. An arrest of spermatogenesis is doubtless the result of irritation.

Chloride Deficiency in Man. The role of chloride alone in sodium chloride deficiency in man is not clear. However large amounts of chloride ions may be lost under another circumstance pyloric obstruction with resulting gastric tetany (784). Here there is a great increase in the all ali

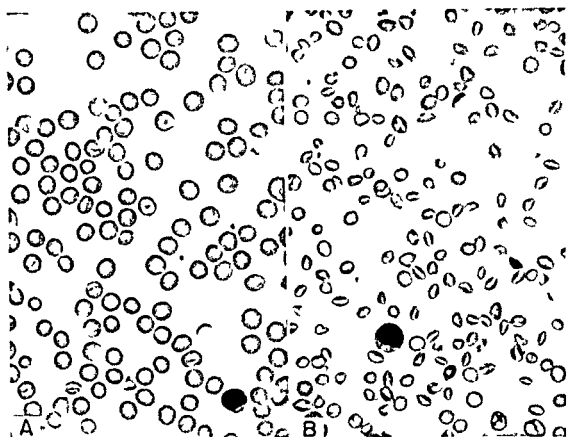


FIGURE 1 Blood Iron Deficiency (734) A Smear taken before young rat was placed on a regimen of whole milk supplemented with copper B Smear at time of sacrifice forty days later Note microcytosis achromia as well as poikilocytosis The blood showed the following (compare with normal values on page 48) RBC 4,790,000 Hb 3.7 gm MCV 44 cu μ MCHC 19 percent MCH 8.6 μ Wright stain $\times 600$

corpuscular volume and the total number of cells when iron therapy is instituted. Several clinical types of anemia should be mentioned (776). Chlorosis is an example of anemia which results from inadequate intake of iron. This syndrome which used to occur primarily in young women is now uncommon. As has already been mentioned achlorhydria may affect the absorption of iron (125) so that in many cases of hypochromic anemia especially in women it is common to find a decrease or absence of hydrochloric acid in the gastric contents. So too when the passage of the intestinal contents through the intestinal tract is rapid iron may be poorly absorbed, hypochromic anemia is therefore seen in cases of chronic diarrhea. During pregnancy there is an increased requirement for iron in order to supply the fetus, during gestation therefore hypochromic anemia may be encountered. The rapid growth period of childhood is another critical stage when supplies of iron must be adequate. Chronic blood loss usually coupled with insufficient iron intake is a most important factor in the production of hypochromic anemia. Hemorrhage from the gastro-intestinal tract because of a variety of

rabbits (132) and swine (653). It is agreed that a microcytic hypochromic anemia develops when iron is withheld from the diet of growing animals whose rations are adequate in all other respects, including the copper content. When rats are placed on a milk diet allowed to become anemic and then treated with copper, Smith and Medlicott (131) find the differences in the blood picture as recorded in the following table.

Table III

| | Normal | Iron Deficient |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| Hemoglobin (gms/100 ml) | 14.91 | 3.57 |
| Red blood cells (cmm) | 7,421,000 | 4,200,000 |
| Mean corpuscular volume (cu μ) | 60 | 34.6 |
| Mean corpuscular hemoglobin (conc. %) | 53.3 | 23.0 |
| Mean corpuscular hemoglobin (gr) | 20.2 | 8.0 |
| Reticulocyte % | 3.4 | 2.5 |

Smears of the blood from iron-deficient animals reveal rather marked microcytosis and achromia. Tiny little cells are seen which are pale and sometimes are very difficult to recognize. There is also basophilia of many of the more normal-sized cells (734).

In iron-deficient animals the serum iron concentration is reduced. In swine, for instance, average values of 48.0 gamma percent have been reported in deficient animals, the average concentration in controls is 142.7 gamma percent (653). The iron content of the tissues of rats is also reduced when dietary intake of iron is restricted (136); the teeth of such deficient rats have a lower iron concentration than that of controls; there is also loss of the yellow pigment of the growing incisor which is not surprising since this pigment is an iron-containing complex (616).

In contrast to copper deficiency (page 51) the cytochrome oxidase of the bone marrow of iron-deficient animals is normal or sometimes even elevated (134) though how much of a role differences in cellularity of the marrow play in the results of such determinations should be taken into account. Such measurements of the cytochrome oxidase activity should therefore be controlled by histological observations.

Iron Deficiency in Man. Iron deficiency in the human, particularly in women and children, is probably more common than has been realized. One may postulate and prove that there are several general factors, one or more of which may result in the development of iron deficiency. The following are therefore of importance in the pathogenesis of iron deficiency anemia: inadequate intake such as has just been described in the experimental animal, defective absorption, increased requirements and excessive loss (776).

Iron deficiency anemia is characterized by microcytosis and hypochromia; there is a prompt reticulocyte response and return to normal of the mean

confused the picture in other similar experiments. Copper occurs as a constituent of certain oxygen carriers for instance the hemocyanins of lower organisms (128). In addition certain oxidizing catalysts such as polyphenol oxidase and ascorbic acid oxidase contain copper. The significance of a copper containing compound hemocuperin which Keilin has obtained from mammalian red blood cells is not clear. The element has also been found in

Table IV

| | Normal | Copper deficient |
|------------------------------------|---------|------------------|
| Hemoglobin (gm/ml) | 14.91 | 6.5 |
| Red blood cells (mm ³) | 471,000 | 276,000 |
| Mean corpuscular vol. (cu μ) | 60 | 11 |
| Mean corpuscular hgb. con. (%) | 33.3 | 9 |
| Mean corpuscular hgb. (g) | 20.2 | 13 |
| Reticulocytes (% per 100 RBC) | 3.4 | 8 |

the elementary bodies of vaccinia virus, here again its role has not been clearly elucidated (621).

Methods for the determination of copper in tissue sections have been described but as yet have not been applied to animals on copper-deficient diets (622).

Pathological Effects Knowledge of the pathological changes which accompany copper deficiency has been derived from several sources. The experimental studies of Hart et al. (617) which have been confirmed by others first showed that an anemia develops in animals whose diet is deficient in copper even though adequate amounts of iron are present. Achromotrichia has also been described in animals on copper deficient diets. Workers in the field of veterinary medicine later showed that characteristic symptoms occurring in both sheep and cattle probably resulted from the low copper content of certain pasturages and that the inclusion of copper salts in the food of such animals prevented the appearance of the specific manifestations of the disease.

The anemia which develops in the copper deficient rat (131) and rabbit (132) tends to be somewhat microcytic and hypochromic in character. The following table provides hematological values which have been recorded by Scott and Medicott (131) on rats rendered anemic by a mill diet and then given insufficient dietary copper but adequate iron.

No reports of any histological observations on laboratory animals deficient in copper have appeared. Certain chemical studies are of interest, however. The cytochrome oxidase activities of liver, myocardium and bone marrow are decreased in copper deficient rats (133-134). Such observations are probably important because a close relationship has been demonstrated between the cytochrome oxidase activity of bone marrow and its ability to form hemo-

lesions including hookworm infestation (778) and menstruation play extremely important roles in this connection. In all of the clinical syndromes briefly alluded to treatment with iron evokes a prompt reticulocyte response and return of the blood picture to normal. Of course, in order to have the red blood and hemoglobin concentration remain at the normal limit, the underlying causative mechanism must be eradicated.

Since virtually no cases of clinical hypochromic anemia die, the pathological changes in the tissues if any, are not clearly understood. The bone marrow is said to exhibit normoblastic hyperplasia (776). In view of the scant pathological manifestations of iron deficiency in experimental animals it is worthwhile to mention certain other changes which are encountered in iron deficient anemias in the human. Sore tongue and sore mouth similar to those encountered in nicotinic acid and riboflavin deficiencies (pages 166 and 158) have been described and respond to therapy with iron (777). In addition there may be extreme dysphagia (the Plummer-Vinson Syndrome) (776). Another interesting finding is the presence of longitudinal or longitudinal ridging and flattening of the fingernails which may be even concave instead of convex.

Copper

Historical The indispensibility of copper for the animal organism was announced in 1928 by Hart, Steenbock, Waddell and Elvehjem (617). These investigators showed that rats develop a severe anemia on a milk diet and that this anemia does not respond to the administration of iron but can be relieved when the milk diet is supplemented with copper as well.

Biochemical Relationships Copper is widely distributed in the animal organism. The central nervous system is richer in its content of this element than any other tissue except liver (618). The following concentrations of copper in mg per kilo of dry weight of certain human tissues have been reported: liver, 40.2; cerebellum 28.8; cerebrum 18.1; kidney 14.1; heart 13.4; pancreas 8.7; and muscle 6.4.

Copper is actively concerned with hematopoiesis although its precise physiological role in this process is not at all clear. It has been shown, however, that copper has little, if any, effect on iron absorption (619). Copper seems to be necessary for both hemoglobin synthesis as well as erythropoiesis (620) for when this element is administered to rats on a milk diet to which no iron has been added a rise in red blood cells occurs although there is no marked increase in hemoglobin. It of course can be argued that the copper salts contained traces of iron. The use of impure supplements has

hind limbs, severe incoordination and in some instances blindness. As mentioned above the malady is seen only in newborn or very young lambs, in some flocks the incidence has been as high as ninety percent of all the animals born. The pathological changes in lambs exhibiting manifestations of swayback were reported by Innes in 1934 (144) before the relationship of copper

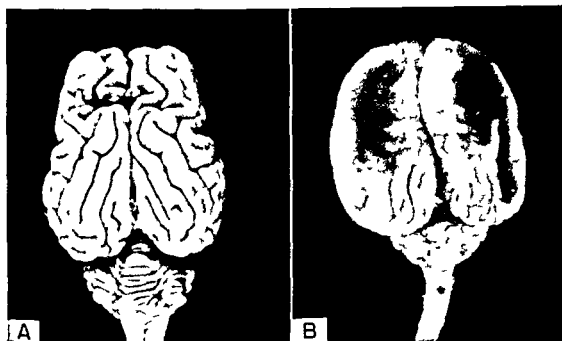


FIGURE 14. Brain Copper Deficiency (145). Cross appearance of brain *A* from normal newborn lamb and *B* from an animal dying three days after birth with signs of "swayback." Note collapse of cerebral hemispheres and shallow convolutions. (Courtesy of Dr. J. R. M. Innes and *The Journal of Comparative Pathology and Therapeutics*.)

deficiency to the syndrome had been fully elucidated. Innes has since extended his studies to the nervous tissues of a large group of lambs affected with the disease and has carefully described the extraordinary changes (145).

The external appearance of such a brain is quite extraordinary since the entire size is smaller than that of a newborn lamb and in addition there is shrinkage and depression of the cerebral hemispheres due to the obvious loss of substance beneath.

Grossly the lesions vary from small areas of porencephaly in the white matter of the central hemispheres to those in which the central white matter was restricted in most cases to a grossly degenerated *centrum ovale*, to a wasted *corpus callosum* and *septum pellucidum* and to the internal capsule. The cerebral gray matter was relatively well preserved, but formed only a thin shell around the degenerated white matter of the cavity.

Microscopically in the white matter of the cerebral hemisphere there is symmetric diffuse demyelination. The process varies from foci of micro-

globin and erythrocytes. That copper acts somehow in hematopoiesis is further indirectly indicated by the ready entrance of radioactive Cu_{64} into the bone marrow (135) and by the fact that copper stimulates erythropoiesis, for when the element is administered to animals on a milk diet, there is a rise in erythrocytes without a concomitant elevation of hemoglobin (620). Copper deficiency may produce changes in other organs, since rats on low copper diet succumb before any well-marked anemia appears and at autopsy the spleen and liver are said to be enlarged (156). Histological examinations of the tissues of copper deficient animals are therefore, much to be desired.

In addition to its importance for the formation of red blood cells copper also plays a role in the pigmentation of hair. Keil and Nelson (137) first demonstrated that the fur of black-coated rats becomes gray after such animals are placed on a copper-deficient diet. With the discovery of other achromotrichia factors such as pantothenic acid and para-aminobenzoic acid the relationship of copper to graying of hair became somewhat confused. Henderson et al (138) have clarified the situation, however by showing that the achromotrichia produced by copper deficiency is not affected by large amounts of pantothenic acid, these investigators also point out that the fur in animals deficient in copper has a brownish color contrary to the silver-gray which develops when pantothenic acid is lacking. No relationship of copper to the lack of pigmentation of hair of mice deficient in para-aminobenzoic acid has been demonstrated (738).

Studies of spontaneous or endemic copper deficiency have been reported in sheep in Australia (139) and England (140) and in cattle from the former region. The disease in sheep has been called 'enzootic ataxia' or 'swayback'. Although the importance of copper to this malady is considered equivocal by some until experimental studies are carried out with purified diets it would seem that swayback must be due to a deficiency, a conditioned deficiency perhaps, of copper. It seems thoroughly well established that in Australia the syndrome occurs only in those pasturages whose copper content is low although this is not confirmed by English investigators. Blood copper studies of pregnant ewes have generally revealed decreased concentrations of this element (141). As was first shown by Bennetts and Chipman (139) in Australia and subsequently confirmed by Dunlop et al (140) in England the incidence of swayback can be greatly reduced or even eliminated by the administration of copper (142). Further studies have shown that other trace elements, such as iron and cobalt are not effective and that treatment with copper raises the blood concentration of this element in pregnant ewes (142). The most important changes have been found in the newborn lamb in which one of the most interesting manifestations of a deficiency in a single nutrient is the relation of copper to lesions in the nervous tissue of animals born to copper deficient ewes. The signs consist of spastic paralysis especially of the

man. His photographs which he has so kindly allowed us to reproduce confirm this similarity.

In adult cattle a syndrome called "falling disease" or 'sudden death' has been described to be dependent upon a deficiency of copper since the administration of this element leads to a reduction in the incidence of the malady.



FIGURE 16. Brain. Copper Deficiency (145). A. Section from occipital pole to show loss of myelin with cavity formation at several points. Weigert Pal. B. Higher power of neurons in red nucleus two of whose cells show chromatolysis. Nissl Orange G method, $\times 400$. (Courtesy of Dr. J. R. M. Innes and *The Journal of Comparative Pathology and Therapeutics*.)

(146) The syndrome is characterized by anemia, loss of weight, and sudden death. The reduction in hemoglobin is not severe, however. At autopsy, there is extensive hemosiderosis of the spleen, liver, and kidney. Lesions have been described in the kidney and myocardium. In the former, tissue degeneration of glomeruli is said to be prominent. The tubular epithelium shows cloudy swelling, the lumens are filled with detritus. From the description, it is difficult to make any decision as to the exact nature or pathogenesis of these renal changes. The heart of affected cows shows extreme fibrosis, which has been interpreted to result from atrophy of the muscle fibers due to long-standing anoxemia (starvation atrophy). Apparently neurological lesions are not prominent.

In summary, copper deficiency in experimental animals leads to anemia, endemic copper deficiency in sheep is associated with widespread myelin degeneration in their offspring.

Copper Deficiency in Man. It is unlikely that copper deficiency occurs at all in man. Although evidence has been brought forward that certain cases of anemia in childhood may be benefitted more when both iron and copper therapy are used, the evidence for this is not considered conclusive by others (127).

scopic size to a virtual absence of the myelin, which can be observed grossly in the severest cases, such as those described and illustrated above. In the areas of demyelination the axis cylinders disappear, moderate glial proliferation is found in and about such areas. Destruction of myelin has not been encountered in the midbrain, cerebellum or brain stem, but as might

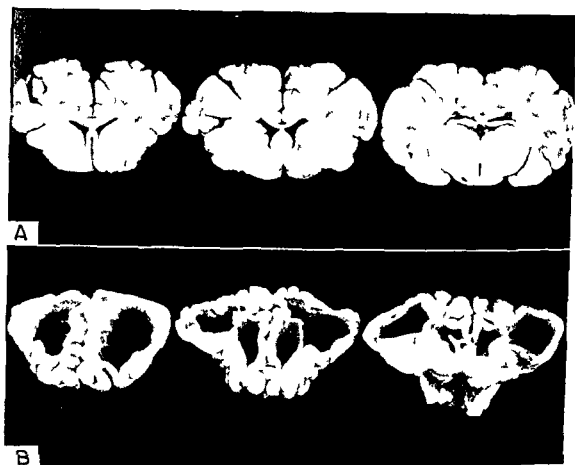


FIGURE 15 Brain Copper Deficiency (145). Coronal sections *A* through brain of normal two day old lamb and *B* animal dying five days after birth with characteristic signs of swayback. Note extreme destruction of white matter with cavity formation and wasting of the corpus callosum. The gray matter is relatively well preserved. The ventricles of the affected brain appear to be dilated. (Courtesy of Dr J. R. M. Innes and *The Journal of Comparative Pathology and Therapeutics*.)

be expected, degeneration of the descending tracts has been observed in the spinal cord. In those lambs in which clinical evidence for the presence of the disease was slight, the neurons usually show no change while in those exhibiting more severe symptoms degenerated cells are found. A constant site of degeneration is the red nuclei. No inflammatory reaction is present in the tissues about blood vessels save the occurrence of mononuclear phagocytes filled with lipid. Innes has called attention to the similarity of the pathological manifestations of this condition in lambs to Schilder's Disease in

similar studies were being pushed in the southern part of that continent. In 1935 Marston (156) reported in sheep a wasting disease with an associated anemia. The administration of cobalt leads to a marked gain in weight together with rises in hemoglobin and red blood cell count (157). This mild, 'coast disease,' as it has been called, is in some instances accompanied by rickets.

Utilizing the Marchi method, which is an unreliable one, degeneration and demyelination of certain tracts in the spinal cord have been demonstrated (158). In affected animals histological examination of the tissues reveals increased deposits of hemosiderin in the liver, spleen, pancreas, and kidney, and on chemical analysis iron is found in large quantities in these tissues (160). It was demonstrated that "coast disease" is a syndrome caused by a deficiency of both cobalt and copper (159). The neurological lesions may then be related to those described in uncomplicated copper deficiency of sheep (page 52).

A disease similar to "enzootic marasmus" has been reported in Florida (161). The muscles of affected calves are pale and there is a great loss of body fat. Degenerative changes are found in the heart and the spleen is said to be shrunken, the liver fatty. More precise pathological studies of animals such as these and in addition those from affected pasturages in Australia are greatly to be desired.

In summary, cobalt has a questionable effect on blood formation in experimental animals and a marked effect on hematopoiesis in farm animals.

Cobalt Deficiency in Man There is no evidence of cobalt deficiency in man and it is unlikely that an experimental deficiency could ever be produced.

Manganese

Historical The indispensability of manganese for the animal organism was shown simultaneously in 1931 by Orent and McCollum (163) and Kemmerer, Elvehjem and Hart (162).

Biochemical Relationships Manganese is widely distributed in tissues, although there are variations from one organ to another the element is particularly abundant in liver (164). The only biological functions of manganese discovered thus far are its relationships to the activity of certain enzymes. Manganese like magnesium is necessary for the activation of phosphatase (165), a more important role is its actual presence in the enzyme, arginase which is utilized in the formation of urea (166).

Pathological Effects Unfortunately experiments dealing with manganese deficiency have been almost entirely restricted to macroscopic or physio-

Cobalt

Historical Cobalt deficiency has not yet been produced in experimental animals. The indispensability of cobalt in the nutrition of sheep and cattle, however, was demonstrated in Australia by Filmer and Underwood during the period from 1933 to 1935.

Biochemical Relationships The relationship of cobalt to hematopoiesis was shown a number of years ago by the Waltners (147), who reported that polycythemia can be produced in rats when this element is administered. The cause for the erythrocytosis is not clear. Although it had been suggested that cobalt might interfere with the respiration of the bone marrow, no evidence has been brought forward for this assumption (148). In rats to which cobalt is administered the average hemoglobin values may rise to 20.5 gm. The spleens of such animals are said to be enlarged, microscopically there is increased erythropoietic activity in the spleen, bone marrow, and to a lesser extent in the liver (149).

Pathological Effects Efforts to produce cobalt deficiency in laboratory animals have not been successful. Workers at the University of Wisconsin have prepared diets containing only 6 micrograms of cobalt per kilo (150). At this low dietary level no effects appear in rats. However, when dogs are placed on a similar ration and are rendered anemic by bleeding, the administration of cobalt seems to stimulate hematopoiesis in some of the animals (151). This approach to the subject would seem to warrant further experiment.

The story of cobalt deficiency in farm animals is quite different from that which has been encountered in the laboratory, and is one of the triumphs in veterinary nutrition. In 1933 Filmer (152) called attention to a disease of sheep and cattle in western Australia. The syndrome which he called 'enzootic marasmus' had been recognized for some time and is characterized by severe emaciation and wasting together with anemia. Microscopically the liver is fatty and contains hemosiderin, the spleen and kidney also contain large quantities of iron pigment. So too upon chemical analysis large amounts of iron are found in the tissues of both sheep and calves in comparison with those of normal animals (153). Although it was first shown that iron salts and liver are effective in curing the disease (152), subsequent work has revealed that impurities in the iron-containing limonite salts which were used are the active agents (154, 155) and that of these cobalt is the specific material in question (155). The element is found in insufficient quantities in the pasturages upon which the affected animals feed.

While these investigations were being carried out in western Australia

More complete studies of the osseous changes are necessary before final conclusions can be drawn in both the rat and the rabbit.

Sterility of male rats on manganese-low diet has been a constant finding. Microscopic examination reveals absence of spermatogenesis (170), but it is not clear whether this change is a result of initiation or not a point which has not been specifically investigated.

The liver tissues of manganese-deficient rats exhibit a decrease in arginase activity (169-170). For instance 1.051 milligrams of urea may be formed by one milligram of dry normal liver at 28° C. while only 0.561 milligrams of urea are formed by the same weight of liver from the manganese-deficient rat (169). Addition of manganese restores the arginase activity to normal, despite this change *in vitro* no evidence of abnormal nitrogen metabolism can be demonstrated *in vivo*.

In summary manganese deficiency in experimental animals leads to disturbance of the growth of young born of deficient mothers. Many die and the few which survive have changes in the bones and develop ataxia.

Manganese Deficiency in Man There is no evidence for manganese deficiency in man nor is it likely that such a deficiency can ever be produced experimentally.

Zinc

Historical The indispensibility of zinc in the diet of the rat was first shown by Todd Flahjem and Hart (174) in 1934. The experimental animals exhibited a disturbance of growth and alopecia.

Biochemical Relationships Little is known of the role of zinc in biologic processes except for its occurrence in several important enzymes. Highly purified preparations of carbonic anhydrase contain about 0.3 percent zinc (175). This enzyme which is so important in the reaction $\text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ is found in red blood cells and other tissues. Zinc also occurs in association with uricase (176) an enzyme which catalyzes the reaction uric acid \rightarrow allantoin. Phosphatase is another enzyme which contains zinc (177). In the presence of amino acids zinc markedly activates intestinal phosphatase but has less effect on phosphatase from bone and kidney (178).

Zinc is a constant constituent of the tissues of the rat, the cat and man. For typical values which have been obtained the papers of Lutz (179) and Drinker (180) should be consulted. Studies utilizing radioactive Zn^{65} in rats have shown that the element is mainly excreted into the gastrointestinal tract by the pancreatic juice. It disappears rapidly from plasma and appears early in red blood cells and liver. The most active turnover is found in the liver, pancreas, kidney and pituitary. The least active turnover is in the red blood cells, brain, skeletal muscles and skin (181-182-183).

logical observations. Since 1931, when Orent and McCollum (163) and Kemmerer et al (162) demonstrated the essentiality of manganese, a number of other reports have been published, particularly by investigators at Johns Hopkins and the University of Wisconsin.

In the initial experiments of the former group (163), growth of the experimental rats is normal. The estrus cycles of the female are likewise normal (167) and when such animals are mated with normal males the usual number of young are produced. However, the females fail to nourish either their own or foster young. When young from manganese-deficient females are placed with normal, lactating animals a few are reared, all such young are undersized. Divergent results have been obtained by Daniels and Everson (168) who employed a somewhat different diet from that used by the Baltimore workers. Almost one-half of the young born to manganese-deficient females on this diet are born dead or die within a few hours after birth. Such manganese-deficient females are able to nourish and rear foster young while only a few of their deficient young can be reared by foster mothers. It is thus apparent that the fault is in the young and not in the mother. This hypothesis has been confirmed by Shils and McCollum (169), who note no disturbance in the estrous cycle of the rat which the University of Wisconsin group had noted in mice (162).

Using a somewhat different diet Boyer et al (170) have shown that manganese is necessary for growth, an observation which has been confirmed by Shils and McCollum (169). The latter investigators have also called attention to another specific feature of the manganese-deficiency syndrome. Some of the young of manganese-deficient females exhibit ataxia, incoordination and loss of equilibrium: they tend to fall over and have difficulty in righting themselves. The underlying cause of these phenomena has not yet been elucidated.

Changes in the bones have been noted by several observers. Barnes et al (171) found roentgenographically that the tibiae of two manganese-deficient rats were shorter than normal and that the epiphysis of the proximal end of the tibia was narrower than normal. Shils and McCollum (169) have noted shortening and bowing of the forelegs in the same species. Further evidence of the role of manganese in the growth of bone in the rat indicates that when this element is deficient there is a decrease in length and density, as well as in the breaking strength of the bone (173). Phosphatase activity is also reduced. In accordance with the observations of others no differences have been found in the percent of ash or calcium phosphorus and manganese contents. In manganese-deficient rabbits Smith et al (172) have described bowing of the forelegs which by x-ray examination appears to be rarified. It should be pointed out that their diet contains no vitamin D and that the control bones appear in the microphotograph to have an excess of osteoid.



FIGURE 18 Skin /zinc Deficiency (185) There is a crust of partially keratinized cells overlying a layer of thickened epithelium which shows acanthosis. There is atrophy of the hair follicles with persistence of the sebaceous glands in fact these structures are hypertrophied in comparison with the normal. This animal had been on a zinc deficient diet for 74 days H and E $\times 150$

nuclei of such cells become pyknotic. In advanced cases the skin is covered by a crust of keratinized debris, bacteria and leukocytes and the corium underlying such areas is hyperemic and infiltrated with leukocytes. Accompanying these changes there is atrophy of the hair follicles, which ultimately disappear leaving only a few mononuclear cells to mark where they had been. The sebaceous glands remain intact and even late in the deficiency the cells making up these structures are larger than those of the controls. Skin from the tail, ears and paws shows no abnormality.

Extensive changes are found in the esophagus of zinc-deficient animals where alterations consisting of an increase in thickness of the epithelial lining together with the appearance of large partially keratinized cells on the surface are found. The normal esophageal epithelium consists of a basal layer of cells some of which exhibit mitotic figures. Above this there are several layers of larger cells with large clear nuclei whose cell borders are indistinct. Above these an abrupt transition to a keratinized layer occurs. The basal cells of the zinc-deficient rat are more numerous and closely packed, the overlying stratum is six to eight cells thick. Along the innermost edge the



FIGURE 1. Skin. Normal. Note epithelium and underlying corium with hair follicles and sebaceous glands. The epithelium is several cells in thickness. There is some keratinization although this is not marked. The sebaceous glands are not very large. H and E, $\times 10$.

Pathological Effects Todd et al (174) employing a diet which contained only 1.6 parts zinc per million noted a disturbance in growth and alopecia both of which manifestations could be prevented by supplementing the diet with about 100 micrograms of zinc each day.

Dav and McCollum (184) have devised a diet which furnishes only one to four micrograms of zinc daily. Zinc is removed by extraction of the dietary components with diphenylthiocarbazone a laborious process. The control diet furnishes 15 mg of zinc daily. When young rats are placed on such a zinc-deficient regimen they cease gaining weight in two to three weeks. Death may occur as early as the thirty-third day of the deficiency. Thinning of the hair becomes apparent after the third week and is followed by alopecia over portions of the dorsum of the body. The denuded areas are roughened and scaly. The histological effects of zinc deficiency were studied by the present writer in association with Dav and McCollum (185). Microscopically the skin shows hyperkeratinization and acanthosis. The epithelium increases from the normal of three to four cells in thickness to eight or ten cell layers and on the surface an increased number of completely or partially keratinized cells is found. No appreciable increase in mitotic activity of the basal cells can be discerned although quantitative measurements have not been performed. Clear spaces appear in the cytoplasm of many cells and the

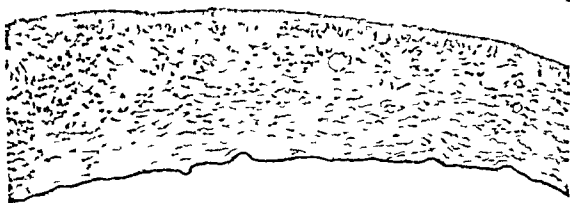


FIGURE 20 Cornea Zinc Deficiency (185) Cornea from zinc deficient animal which had been on experimental diet for 74 days. Note several large vessels together with infiltration with leukocytes. There is also some thickening of the epithelium. The corneal vascularization and leukocytic infiltration is similar to that which has been described in other nutritional deficiencies in the rat. H. and L., $\times 60$.

Zinc deficiency has also been produced in mice (186), which develop alopecia of the shoulders, back of neck and part of the face.

Studies of the activity of certain enzymes with which zinc is related are interesting though negative. Measurements of the carbonic anhydrase activity of the red blood cells from zinc-deficient animals have shown no change from normal (184-187). Although no decrease in the uricase activity of the liver has been demonstrated in zinc-deficient rats such depleted animals do have an increased concentration of uric acid in the blood (188). Reduction in the activity of the alkaline phosphatase of the blood has been found in zinc-depleted animals (184), no abnormalities in carbohydrate metabolism have been detected (189) nor do such animals show any decreased activity of certain pancreatic enzymes (proteinase, amylase) (190).

In summary, experimental zinc deficiency leads to lesions of the skin, esophagus and possibly the cornea. Certain metabolic abnormalities have been discussed. More chronic studies of zinc deficiency should be undertaken.

Zinc Deficiency in Man It is highly improbable that zinc deficiency ever occurs in man. In fact it would require superhuman efforts to concoct a diet with which to study this deficiency in experimental subjects since this element is so widespread in foods.

Iodine

Historical Although the existence of iodine had been recognized for many years and this element had even been used from time to time therapeutically, its importance for the organism was not clearly demonstrated

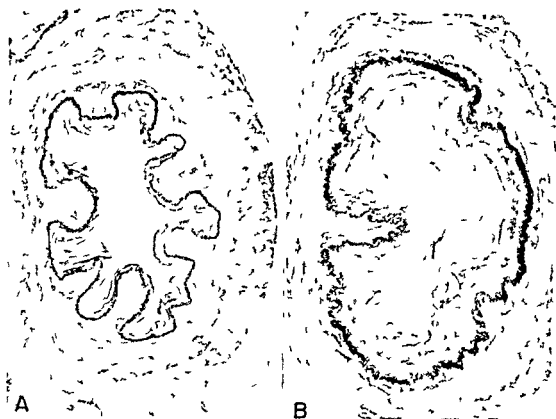


FIGURE 19 Zinc Deficiency (185) A Normal esophagus B Esophagus from rat which had been placed on a zinc deficient diet for 74 days Note increase in thickness of the lining epithelium In comparison with normal there is extensive parakeratosis together with an increase in thickness of the basal cell layer H and E x50

nuclei become pyknotic but do not disappear in normal fashion so that there is a zone of partially keratinized cells ten or twelve cells in thickness. The submucosa is normal. Similar alterations found in foci on the posterior portions of the tongue and the posterior roof of the mouth, the fore stomach is not involved. The change is interpreted as being due to either a retardation in normal keratinization or an increased proliferation of cells. The lesion is unique among the many which have been produced by various dietary deficiencies.

In two zinc-deficient animals vascularization of the cornea has been observed. This consists of an ingrowth of capillaries into the tunica propria and infiltration of this tissue by leukocytes. There is no keratinization of the epithelium and the lacrimal glands are normal. No other specific changes are found in other tissues of such animals save those which must be ascribed to inanition.

Studies of the zinc content of the bones of these animals reveal a reduction in the deficient rats to 94.7 micrograms per gram of ash as compared with the value of 236.6 micrograms in the controls (184).

- b) Increased production
- c) Decreased need—Starvation hot environment

II Increased—Hyperplastic gland with or without physiological hyperthyroidism

- A Primary pituitary hyperfunction ()
- B Injection of thyrotrophic hormone (200)
- C Decreased thyroxin in the blood due to
 - a) Increased utilization—cold poisons (200 201)
 - b) Removal of thyroid tissue
 - c) Interference with function
 - 1 Iodine deficiency (201 202 203 204 205)
 - 2 Interference with removal of inorganic iodine from blood stream
 - 3 Interference with reaction inorganic iodine \rightarrow organic iodine compounds (196)
 - 4 Interference with release of hormone into blood stream (197)

Pathological Effects Studies of iodine deficiency have been intimately concerned with the problem of goiter a term which unfortunately is much misunderstood. Goiter has come to mean an enlargement or increase in weight of the thyroid gland. Two main types of goiter are observed one due to an abnormal deposition of colloid material in the follicles of the gland so-called colloid goiter and a second due to hyperplasia of the epithelium of the follicles so-called exophthalmic goiter hyperplastic goiter etc. It is unfortunate that the term goiter is so frequently used without qualifying it or determining whether such a thyroid is enlarged because of excessive colloid deposition because of epithelial hyperplasia or some other reason.

Modern studies of goiter began when Halsted (207) extirpated almost all of the glandular tissue from dogs early in pregnancy and found thyroid enlargement in their off-spring. It was soon demonstrated that such congenital goiters could be prevented by the administration of potassium iodide to the female during gestation (208). Further interest was aroused when the administration of iodine to certain pregnant sows prevented the birth of hairless cretin-like off-spring (209). Such experiments lent support to the growing idea that iodine deficiency and goiter are closely related. Experimental goiter on the basis of iodine deficiency has been difficult to realize however for any experiment which is designed to study thyroid structure in relation to iodine deficiency must take into account such diverse factors as environmental temperature (200) calcium content of the diet (203) effects of other chemical substances (198 206) as well as many other factors.

until 1896 when Baumann (193) found high concentrations of iodine in thyroid tissue. A further clarification of its physiological role awaited the demonstration by Kendall thirty years later that purified thyroxine contains about sixty percent iodine (640).

Biological Relationships Ingested inorganic iodine compounds are absorbed, find their way into the blood stream, and are immediately removed by the thyroid gland. The thyroid epithelium has an enormous capacity for the prompt withdrawal of relatively large quantities of circulating inorganic iodide which is then rapidly transformed into the organic forms—diiodotyrosine and thyroxine. *In vitro* and *in vivo* studies utilizing radioactive I^{131} indicate that there is a step-wise mechanism in the formation of thyroid hormone. First, the cells remove inorganic iodide from the medium or blood, next radio-diiodotyrosine and radio thyroxine are formed and lastly an active principle is liberated into the blood stream or colloid. Such conclusions are based on the inactivation of these processes by certain poisons (194-195, 196-197).

Before discussing the pathological effects resulting from relative or absolute deficiency, mention should be made of some current concepts of thyroid physiology and of the various factors which affect the gland, for all must be borne in mind when any deficiency of this element is being considered. That there is a reciprocal relationship between the pituitary and thyroid glands seems well established. When, for some reason the concentration of thyroid hormone in the blood falls, there is an increased production of pituitary thyrotrophic hormone and *vice versa*. Since the hypophysis is thought to be the controlling factor, two groups of possible conditions both based on pituitary activity may be considered: (a) those in which the thyrotrophic stimulus is absent or reduced, and (b) those in which this stimulus is increased. When the former conditions prevail thyroid hypoplasia (sometimes colloid-like goiter in animals) is to be expected, while thyroid hyperplasia will usually occur following the latter. Thyroid hyperplasia does not always imply clinical hyperthyroidism with an increased basal metabolic rate. On the contrary it is important to realize that the basal metabolic rate may be elevated, normal or even depressed in the presence of morphologically hyperactive thyroid tissue. The following classification summarizes some of the present knowledge of the various known and hypothetical factors which may lead to the conditions briefly alluded to above.

Pituitary Stimulus is

- I Absent or Reduced—Hypoplastic gland sometimes colloid like goiter
 - A Hypophysectomy (198)
 - B Increased blood concentration of thyroxine due to
 - 1) Increased administration (199)

Depending of course on the composition of the diet and its iodine content the initial alteration is found in the epithelium. The cells change from their flat or cuboidal form into columnar structures, intra-cellular vacuoles have been described. No pointed study has been made of the size of the nuclei or of any other cellular constituent. Cellular hyperplasia leads to infolding and partial obliteration of the lumen of the follicles accompanied by a great reduction in colloid content. Necrosis of the epithelium has likewise been observed, and is thought to be related to the iodine content of the ration, the lower the iodine concentration the more extensive the necrosis. In addition to these morphological changes the gland increases in weight and appears to develop a greater vascularity. No lymphocytic infiltrations which are so characteristic of the hyperplastic gland in the human have been described in experimental animals. It must be emphasized that the morphological picture thus far produced by experimental iodine deficiency is that of hyperplasia not colloid goiter at least as the latter is seen in man. It may be that the experimental periods have not yet been long enough to produce this latter change from the experiments which have just been epitomized it is obvious that more studies over longer periods are greatly needed.

Iodine Deficiency in Man Following the early experiments on the role of iodine in the production of goiter in animals it soon became clear that there was a reciprocal relationship between iodine concentration in soil and drinking water and the incidence of goiter in the human. The epidemiology of goiter and the results of iodine therapy on the incidence of spontaneous goiter in man have been summarized by McClendon (211). However there is evidence which indicates that the problem is not so simple as many would believe. When one realizes that endemic goiter waxes and wanes and that epidemics of goiter have been described it is clear that other factors definitely play a role. So too goiter does not seem to have been as prominent during the early exploration of America as it now is. These and other observations which indicate only a few of the complexities of the subject have been well summarized by Greenwald (212-791) their explanation must await further investigations.

It is clear though from the study of iodine in relation to the prevention of goiter that there must be a definite connection between the two. Data which have been summarized by McClendon (211) have shown an apparent reduction of goiter in endemic areas when iodine was added to the salt or water supply. It must be pointed out however that iodine acts as a prophylactic in colloid goiter and does very little to reduce the size of the thyroid after the gland has enlarged. Inasmuch as this type of goiter has not been produced in animals by experimental diets the pathogenesis of the process is not at all clear. The most commonly accepted hypothesis that of Marine

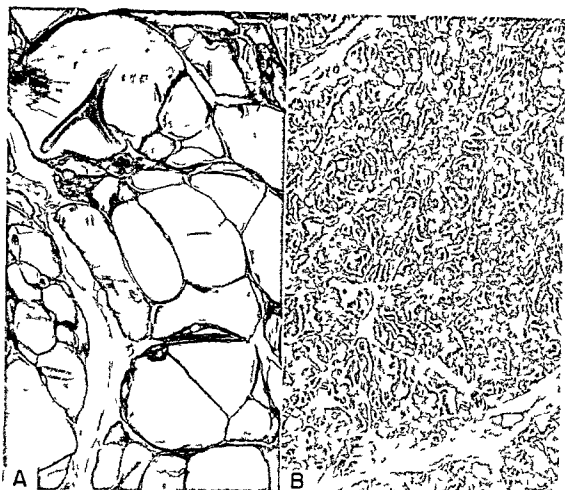


FIGURE 21a Thyroid The colloid and hyperplastic types of goiter *A* A 23 year old white female who had noted swelling of the neck for ten years and a choking sensation for the past two years Examination revealed a large diffuse soft thyroid BMR \rightarrow Note large follicles filled with colloid and lined by flattened epithelial cells *B* A 37 year old colored female who had noted choking sensation swelling of the neck nervousness and bulging of the eyes BMR $+60$ Treatment with rest and KI reduced BMR to $+13$ Subtotal thyroidectomy was performed Note great cellularity with infolding of cells into lumen and scanty colloid Both H and E $\times 50$

already noted All must be evaluated before precise conclusions can be drawn Because of such interfering variables little progress has been made in attacking the problem of the relations of iodine to the deposition of colloid in the thyroid gland That absolute or relative iodine deficiency leads to an hyperplastic thyroid seems well established however (201, 202 203 204 205) In the rat various degrees of goiter characterized by epithelial proliferation have been produced but one must always keep in mind the other extraneous factors referred to above Indeed to be hypercritical it is not entirely certain to date whether absolute iodine deficiency goiter (epithelial hyperplasia type) has ever been attained experimentally in normal animals, certainly colloid goiter has not

fluorine deficiency in experimental animals. Some years ago Sharpless and McCollum (215) fed three generations of rats a diet low in fluorine content, no effects were noted. So too, Evans and Phillips (216) fed similar animals a milk diet for 5 generations and found only a decrease in the fluoride content of the skeleton. More recently McClendon (214, 217) utilized the hydroponics technique to prepare fluorine-free foodstuffs and studied the effects of such a diet on several rats. One animal died in 48 days of starvation, because severe caries prevented chewing while a second rat lived a little longer but evidenced severe caries at autopsy. Similar changes have been observed in rats from mothers placed on low-fluorine rations. Histological studies of such teeth have not been as yet reported and these few animals then furnish the only evidence that fluorine-deficient diets have any effect on the tooth structures of the growing animal.

Fluorine Deficiency in Man The relationship of fluorine to tooth lesions in the human has been based more on the effects of increased amounts of fluoride in the diet rather than on decreased concentrations. In 1931, it was conclusively shown that changes in the enamel of the teeth may be found when there is an increased concentration of fluorine in the drinking water (218). Such lesions, mottled enamel or enamel hypoplasia, consist of pits and depressions in the enamel covering of the teeth. Since 1931 numerous epidemiological studies have shown conclusively that this disease is related to the fluoride content of water and as the concentrations of fluoride increase the severity of mottled enamel likewise becomes more severe. The disease is particularly prominent in this country, especially in New Mexico and certain portions of Texas where the fluoride content of the water may be very high. For instance in Lubbock, Texas the water contains 4.4 parts of fluorine per million and as a result over 90 percent of the children between the ages of 9 and 11 have mottled enamel (219).

As would be expected from the gross appearance, histological examination of such teeth reveals the ameloblasts to be most affected (220), such cells apparently become inactive and assume a flat shape. In addition defects in calcification of the dentine appear and this material becomes stratified. There is also damage to the odontoblasts since many have pyknotic nuclei. Though only the teeth of the growing organism are affected, bone may be involved in hyperfluorosis at any age, such osseous changes consist of thickening of the trabeculae in the shaft and the periosteal new bone formation about the cortex (220). In the human the concentrations of fluoride in the drinking water necessary to produce these changes must be relatively large and a fairly long period of ingestion of such concentrations must prevail before radiological and histological defects can be found in the bones.

An even more important phase of fluorine metabolism in its relation to preventive medicine is the accumulating evidence that certain concentra-

(213), is that iodine deficiency leads to epithelial hyperplasia which after a time is followed by a reversion or involution to normal, the nearest approach to normal being colloid goiter, such a cycle may repeat itself. The stages of this cycle have been correlated with the iodine content of the thyroid gland, for instance in human tissues, the normal, hyperplastic gland and colloid goiter contain 2.17, 32 and 199 mgm per gram of dried gland, respectively (210). It is unfortunate that there are so few data on the incidence of colloid and hyperplastic goiters in similar localities. Such studies based on histological examination of the tissue at operation and autopsy might aid in a better understanding of the pathogenesis of both types. According to McClendon's (211) data there is some evidence that the incidence of the two types have some parallelism according to geographical location. The evidence is not entirely conclusive, however, since it is based on too few observations. A further problem of course, can be cited by the surgical pathologist who seldom encounters foci of colloid follicles in hyperplastic glands or *vice versa*. The relation of iodine to morphological changes is very, very obscure.

The mode of action of iodine on the hyperplastic gland of Grave's disease is not clear. The gland becomes less hyperplastic and the follicles fill up with colloid. That this is unrelated to iodine deficiency is obvious however since the iodine effect on the tissues and basal metabolic rate is only a temporary one.

Fluorine

Historical The indispensability of fluorine for the animal organism has not been as yet completely proved, however, there is suggestive evidence that this element is necessary to protect the integrity of growing teeth. The first positive report dealing with a diet deficient in fluorine and its effect on tooth structure of the rat was made by McClendon in 1944 (214).

Biochemical Relationships The biological role of fluoride ions whether in increased or decreased concentrations, is not entirely clear. Relatively small amounts of fluoride compounds are tissue poisons doubtless as a result of the inactivation of specific enzyme systems. For instance small concentrations of fluoride ions inhibit the calcification of rachitic cartilage *in vitro*, on the other hand similar concentrations have much less action on bone phosphatase activity (372). The effect of inadequate amounts of fluorine in biochemical reactions has not been studied sufficiently to determine what, if any, the result might be.

Pathological Effects Only a few attempts have been made to produce

PART III

THE ESSENTIAL AMINO ACIDS

"A deficiency in a nitrogenous dietary need not necessarily be one of quantity, the form in which nitrogen is supplied may determine its efficiency. Thus, in the familiar case of gelatine it is, of course, a qualitative deficiency which makes that substance unable to maintain nitrogenous equilibrium. It is generally assumed that this qualitative deficiency is occasioned by the absence from gelatine of certain molecular groups which are present in true protein, but this hypothesis leaves unexplained the advantage possessed by gelatine over fats and carbohydrates as a protein sparer" Willcock and Hopkins 1906 (227)

tions of fluoride compounds in drinking water protect against the development of dental caries. Several years ago because the water supply in Bauvite, Arkansas contained a high content of fluorine the source of the water was changed to one which contains virtually none of this element (221). When, about 10 years after this change, the teeth of the children in Bauvite were examined, the incidence of mottled enamel was found to be as high as expected, more interesting however, was the observation that such children who had been drinking this fluorine free water for 10 years had an extremely low incidence of dental caries (224). In contrast, children living in a near-by town who had used the same source of fluorine-free water all their lives had a high incidence of caries.

These and other observations (758) have stimulated a tremendous amount of interest in the use of fluorine to protect against dental caries, at the present time extensive research programs dealing with this problem are under way in a number of states (222). The most impressive data which are available on caries prevention have been furnished by Knutson (223) of the Public Health Service. In April and May of 1942 a group of children received 7 to 15 topical applications of sodium fluoride solution to the teeth in the left upper and lower quadrants of the mouth. Upon examination 2 years later 41.3 percent less teeth were carious on the treated than in the untreated side of the mouth. In addition, the number of additional carious lesions in teeth which were decayed at the beginning of the study was 23.1 percent less in the treated than in the untreated carious teeth. The results of similar studies now being carried on will be awaited with interest.

PROTEINS IN GENERAL

Of the three chief foodstuffs proteins constitute the most important group. Besides contributing to the structure of the cell and of intercellular substances (osteoid, dentine, collagen, et cetera) proteins and their constituent amino acids are of tremendous importance in the formation of enzymes, hormones, hemoglobin, plasma proteins, antibodies and many other physiologically active substances.

Proteins of course vary widely in their amino acid content, the importance of this in nutrition was brought out by the early observations of Hopkins (227) and of Osborne and Mendel (228). The inadequacy of zein as a sole source of protein because of its lack of tryptophane and lysine is one of the classic observations in the science of nutrition. Such experiments initiated modern studies of the dispensable and indispensable amino acids a subject which W. C. Rose and his collaborators have done much to elucidate.

Of the twenty-odd amino acids which have been isolated, Rose has designated ten as *indispensable*, that is those which are needed for normal growth in the rat: tryptophane, lysine, histidine, arginine, phenylalanine, isoleucine, leucine, threonine, methionine and valine. Further studies have shown that these same amino acids are necessary for normal growth of the dog and that all but two—arginine and histidine—are necessary to promote a positive nitrogen balance in man. Arginine is synthesized in moderate quantities by the rat so that it is only indispensable for the growing animal. The essential amino acids have been studied in relation to their ability to restore hemoglobin and/or plasma protein formation in dogs rendered anemic and/or hypoproteinemic.

It must be stressed that the present list of indispensable amino acids must not be accepted as final. More may need to be added, and it is possible that others may be removed from the essential group. Evidence now accumulating suggests that perhaps certain amino acids or similar materials are synthesized by the intestinal flora (225, 226). For instance, when sulfasuxidine is added to the diets of rats which are receiving either the ten essential amino acids, casein, or a casein digest as sources of nitrogen, growth is much poorer in the animals fed the crystalline amino acids. Such results may be interpreted to indicate that casein and casein digest supply amino acids other than the ten essential ones and that these additional amino acids are ordinarily synthesized by the intestinal flora.

Table V presents a short summary of the effects of deficiencies of the ten essential amino acids in the various mammalian species studied thus far. What few details that are known concerning the pathological changes pro-

PART III

THE ESSENTIAL AMINO ACIDS

| | |
|---------------------|----|
| Proteins in General | 73 |
| Tryptophane | 75 |
| Lysine | 77 |
| Histidine | 78 |
| Arginine | 79 |
| Phenylalanine | 79 |
| Leucine | 80 |
| Isoleucine | 81 |
| Threonine | 91 |
| Methionine | 82 |
| Valine | 85 |

duced by such deficiencies will be found on the following pages. How little has been learned, particularly in comparison with the data which have been accumulated on deficiencies of the elements and vitamins, will be obvious. The sections dealing with each amino acid have been arranged arbitrarily in order of the discovery of their individual indispensability.

TRYPTOPHANE

Historical One of the monuments in the history of nutrition was Willcock and Hopkins' observation that mice fail to grow and even die if the sole source of dietary protein is zein (227). Although growth was prolonged when these investigators added tryptophane to the ration it remained for Osborne and Mendel to furnish the complete story and show that zein plus tryptophane plus lysine promoted normal growth, thus tryptophane and lysine were established as essential nutrients (228).

Biochemical Relationships As is the case of so many essential amino acids the function of tryptophane in the organism is not entirely clear. Its importance is obvious since it is a constituent of plasma protein, hemoglobin, thyroglobulin, Nissl substance and many other body proteins. The relation of pyridoxine to the metabolism of tryptophane is a most interesting one which is discussed elsewhere (page 183). Even more important is the relationship of this amino acid to the pellagra syndrome in man and to the effects produced in experimental animals by diets containing large quantities of cornmeal. It is now clear that since the tryptophane content of cornmeal is low the grain does not furnish the organism enough of this amino acid to form nicotinic acid. Pellagra, therefore must be looked upon in part as a deficiency of tryptophane rather than of nicotinic acid (594).

Pathological Effects Experimental tryptophane deficiency leads to the following: Failure of growth (mouse, rat and swine), alopecia (rat), cataract (rat, swine), anemia (rat, dog, swine), hypoproteinemia (rat, dog, swine), and changes in the teeth (rat).

Since the experiments of Hopkins (227) and of Osborne and Mendel (228) it has been well established that tryptophane deficiency leads to a disturbance in growth. That this amino acid is also necessary for the maintenance of nitrogen equilibrium in the adult organism has been demonstrated in the rat (229) and dog (230).

Loss of hair is a prominent feature of tryptophane deficiency in the rat. Alopecia begins on the head and spreads to involve the face and back (231). In the growing animal the hair may be restored by adding tryptophane to the deficient diet. No histological studies have been reported thus far.

Cataracts have been described in both rats (232-233) and swine (234). In the former species two types, acute and chronic, have been designated. The former starts in the posterior cortex of the lens and spreads to involve

Table V
A Summary of Some of the Effects Produced in Various Species by
Deficiencies of the Ten Essential Amino Acids

| | RAT | | | MOUSE | | DOG | | | MAN | |
|---------------|--------|-------|--|--------|--|------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | Growth | | Other Effects | Growth | | Nitrogen Balance | Plasma Protein Formation | Hemoglobin Formation | Nitrogen Balance | Other Effects |
| | Young | Adult | | | | | | | | |
| TRYPTOPHANE | + | + | Anemia alopecia cataract corneal vasc (231) hypoproteinemia (227) | + | | + | + | + | + | |
| LYSINE | + | 0 | Corneal vasc (242) | + | | + | | + | + | Excretion of organic acids (243) |
| HISTIDINE | + | + | Corneal vasc (250) | + | | + | | + | 0 | Abnormal urinary metabolites (251) |
| ARGININE | + | 0 | | 0 | | 0 | + | + | 0 | Decreased sperma togenesis? (255) |
| PHENYLALANINE | + | 0 | | + | | + | | + | + | |
| LEUCINE | + | 0 | Enlargement hypophy- sis corneal vasc (263) | + | | + | | + | + | |
| ISOLEUCINE | + | + | | + | | + | | + | + | |
| THREONINE | + | + | | + | | + | | + | + | |
| METHIONINE | + | + | Anemia and hypo- proteinemia (274) | + | | + | + | | + | |
| VALINE | + | + | Irritability and spin- ning movements (296) | + | | + | + | + | + | |

Tryptophane Deficiency in Man In experimental tryptophane deficiency in the human, studies have been carried out for very short periods. Aside from a negative nitrogen balance which indicates that this amino acid is indispensable, no significant changes have been observed (238). The relationships of tryptophane to nicotinic acid synthesis has recently assumed great importance and the possibility that pellagra may be in part the result of tryptophane deficiency, inasmuch as cornmeal contains so little of this amino acid, appears to be a real one. More details of this subject will be found on page 183.

LYSINE

Historical Lysine and tryptophane were the first indispensable amino acids to be recognized. From the preceding section it will be recalled that Hopkins showed that the growth of mice can be prolonged when tryptophane is added to zein and that Osborne and Mendel (228) later showed that growth can be much improved when lysine is added to the tryptophane-zein mixture. The latter investigators also demonstrated that rats fail to grow on a diet of which the protein is supplied by wheat gliadin and that growth is improved when lysine is added.

Biochemical Relationships Little is known of the role of lysine in physiological processes. It is unique among the essential amino acids thus far studied in that once it is deaminated, the residue cannot be reaminated to form lysine again (239).

Pathological Effects Lysine is necessary for the growth of rats (240, 241). Although disagreement exists as to whether a deficiency of this amino acid leads to anemia, there is some evidence which indicates slight though definite decrease in red blood cells and hemoglobin concentrations in both growing rats (240) and dogs (235). The only microscopic studies which have been reported are on the bones and eyes of rats. Osseous changes are non-specific and resemble those seen in inanition (241). Corneal vascularization which resembles that seen in other deficiencies (242) has been described.

Lysine Deficiency in Man Investigations of experimental lysine depletion in the human have demonstrated the development of a negative nitrogen balance (243). After 5 days on the deficient diet all 3 of the subjects so studied complained of nausea, dizziness and hypersensitivity to metallic sounds. In addition unidentified non ketonic organic acids may be detected in the urine; these acids are interpreted to indicate a 'biochemical lesion' of lysine deficiency. It is unlikely that lysine deficiency can ever occur in man except under experimental conditions.

the perinuclear and anterior cortical zones and usually matures within two or three weeks. The latter, which takes longer to develop and matures more slowly, is confined to the anterior and posterior cortices. Cataracts have been described only in growing rats not in adult animals. In two of three swine studied by Wintrobe et al (234) opacities were noted in the equatorial portion of the lens, in one animal these spread to the anterior and posterior portions of the lens. Corneal vascularization is said to occur in tryptophane deficient rats (233), but has not been observed in swine. A slight anemia has been reported in rats maintained on a diet whose protein content was furnished by acid hydrolyzed casein, the blood returned to normal when tryptophane was administered (229). A much more marked reduction in red blood cells and hemoglobin has been observed in swine fed an acid hydrolysate of casein (234). This anemia is normocytic or slightly microcytic and normochromic. The reduction in red blood cells is accompanied by normal serum iron levels, no hemosiderosis is found in the tissues. The bone marrow is not particularly hyperplastic. In dogs rendered anemic by bleeding accelerated hemoglobin formation takes place when tryptophane is administered (235).

A reduction in plasma proteins has been observed in rats (229) and swine (234) made deficient in tryptophane. In the latter species the protein concentrations may be reduced, for instance, in one animal from the normal of over 6 gm percent to as low as 2.8 gm percent after 117 days on the deficient diet. Tryptophane leads to prompt regeneration of plasma protein in the hypoproteinemic plasmapheresed dog (236).

Absence of development of the yellow pigmentation of the incisor teeth has been observed in the rat (231). This, as might be expected, is only observed in growing animals and its etiology is not clear.

In three swine deficient in tryptophane necroses and atrophy of the skeletal muscle fibers have been observed (234), changes which are similar to those noted in vitamin E deficiency.

Albani et al (337) have claimed that 'tryptophane is a most important dietary essential for normal gestation in the rat.' Until more evidence is presented such a claim is not justified. The differences observed are probably the result of inanition since the deficient rats lost, on the average, 34 gm, while the controls gained on the average 31 gm. In addition the food consumption of the latter group was greater than that of the former. It seems logical to assume that reproduction cannot take place when any of the ten essential amino acids are absent since by definition all are necessary for normal growth.

In summary, experimental tryptophane deficiency leads to failure of growth, alopecia, cataract, anemia, hypoproteinemia and loss of the pigment in the rat's incisor.

indican test, has not been further identified. It is unlikely that histidine deficiency can ever occur in the human except under experimental conditions.

ARGININE

Historical The indispensibility of arginine for the normal growth of young rats was first shown by Rose and his group (252). This amino acid is not necessary in adult rats, since sufficient amounts can be synthesized to maintain the organism in nitrogen balance (280).

Biochemical Relationships Arginine has been shown to lead to deposition of a small amount of liver glycogen and to decrease ketosis in fasting rats fed sodium butyrate (253). Arginine is probably one of the precursors of creatine (254) and, of course, acts as a catalyst in the synthesis of urea.

Pathological Effects As noted above arginine is an indispensable nutrient for the growing rat, but is not necessary for the adult rat (280), mouse (269) or dog (230), since these organisms can synthesize sufficient quantities of the amino acid. Arginine, therefore, has a unique place between the indispensable and dispensable amino acids. There is some evidence that arginine is necessary for plasma protein formation in the protein depleted dog (256) and for hemoglobin formation in anemic dogs (235).

Arginine Deficiency in Man Studies in man have indicated that although arginine deficiency does not lead to negative nitrogen balance, the amino acid may have an important relation to spermatogenesis. Holt et al. (255) have reported a ten-fold reduction in the number of spermatozoa of the seminal plasma of 3 individuals after 9 days on an arginine-deficient diet. Following the inclusion of arginine in the diet there was a return to normal after several weeks. It is unfortunate that such observations are marred by the absence of any control studies before the arginine-deficient regimen was instituted. Further observations in man and in experimental animals are clearly indicated.

PHENYLALANINE

Historical One of the many important reports from Rose's laboratory showed that phenylalanine is an indispensable amino acid and that tyrosin is not (257). This cleared up a subject which until 1934 had been much confused.

Biochemical Relationships The normal metabolism of phenylalanine probably calls for its conversion into tyrosin and further break-down by opening the benzene ring (258). The importance of ascorbic acid for phenylalanine metabolism has been shown in both guinea pigs and premature babies and is discussed elsewhere (page 131). Phenylalanine and tyrosin are structurally very closely related to epinephrine, ephedrine, thyroxin and

HISTIDINE

Historical Histidine was added to the group of indispensable amino acids in 1917 when the investigations of Geiling (244) clearly showed that adult mice will fail to maintain their weight when this amino acid is omitted from their diets. The indispensability of histidine for the rat was soon confirmed by Cox and Rose (245).

Biochemical Relationships Histidine is apparently a precursor of carbohydrate since liver glycogen deposition follows its ingestion and the ketonuria produced by a high fat diet is decreased when histidine is fed (246).

The relation of histidine to histamine is not clear. Certain tissues contain an enzyme which will form histamine from histidine, for instance kidney tissues contain an enzyme histidine decarboxylase which affects this transformation (247), so it is quite likely that toxic effects which are noted when histidine is administered, may result from its conversion to histamine. This may explain the observation that in rabbits to which this amino acid is administered increased tachycardia, respiratory difficulty, and paralysis of the hind extremities may be observed and may be followed by death. Microscopic examination of such animals reveals pulmonary edema and constriction of the bronchial musculature (248).

Pathological Effects Histidine is necessary for growth of the rat (249, 250). Such animals acutely deficient in histidine develop a moderate anemia, hemoglobin values fall from the normal of 14 gm to about 10 gm percent. Histological examinations of the tissues have failed to reveal any specific changes other than those ascribed to inanition except in the eye. Here the corneal epithelium is thinned and the superficial portion is keratinized. In addition there is leukocytic infiltration and blood vessels grow into the substantia propria (250).

Histidine is necessary for the weight maintenance of adult rats (249) and deficiency in this amino acid leads to a negative nitrogen balance in dogs (250). Histidine is probably necessary for plasma protein production in the plasmapheresed dog and leads to hemoglobin formation in dogs made anemic by bleeding. However the relation of histidine to hemoglobin formation in this species requires further study.

In summary, the only morphological changes resulting from histidine deficiency is corneal vascularization. Anemia and hypoproteinemias may develop. Further studies are greatly needed.

Histidine Deficiency in Man In experimental histidine deficiency over short periods, histidine does not lead to a negative nitrogen balance (251, 260). There is loss of weight, however and an abnormal metabolite appears in the urine (251). This substance which gives a green color with the Shirlit

velops when leucine is omitted from the diet (260). It is unlikely that a deficiency in this amino acid ever occurs in the human except under experimental conditions.

ISOLEUCINE

Historical The indispensability of isoleucine for the growth of rats was demonstrated by Womack and Rose in 1936 (261).

Biochemical Relationships Little is known of the rôle of isoleucine in nutrition. It is of interest that human plasma proteins (264) as well as hemoglobin (265) contain insufficient amounts of isoleucine to promote normal growth in the rat.

Pathological Effects Womack and Rose (260) showed that isoleucine is necessary for growth in the rat. In the dog isoleucine is necessary for hemoglobin (235), plasma protein formation (236) and the maintenance of nitrogen balance (230). No histological studies have been reported on any species deficient in isoleucine.

Isoleucine Deficiency in Man The indispensability of this amino acid for the nutrition of humans has also been established since in its absence negative nitrogen balance develops (260). As in the case of the majority of the amino acids it is very unlikely that a deficiency of isoleucine can ever exist except under experimental conditions.

THREONINE

Historical While studying the problem of essential and non-essential amino acids Rose and his co-workers discovered a new indispensable amino acid (266). After proving its analogous chemical structure to d-(-)-threose, the new substance was named threonine (267).

Biochemical Relationships Little is known of the role of threonine in physiological processes except that it may be converted into carbohydrate by the rat (268).

Pathological Effects Virtually no attention has been given to the study of pathological effects produced by threonine deficiency. Growth disturbance in the rat (266) and its influence on serum protein production in the dog (256) have been observed when such animals are placed on diets deficient in threonine. Mice exhibit a rapid loss of weight and develop a queer puffy appearance with marked abdominal distention (269). At autopsy there is pronounced edema and ascites; it is likely that these findings may result from hypoproteinemia.

Threonine Deficiency in Man In man a negative nitrogen balance has been observed when threonine is withheld from the diet (260) of experimental subjects. It is extremely unlikely that threonine deficiency could ever occur other than experimentally in man.

melanin, although changes in the metabolism of these substances have not been reported in animals deficient in this amino acid

Pathological Effects In rats whose diets are deficient in phenylalanine there is a cessation of growth (257, 259). Pathological studies have been reported in a few deficient rats and their paired fed controls placed on a phenylalanine-deficient diet for 28 days (259), in these there is an average reduction in hemoglobin from 14.7 gm to 9.9 gm, and a slight fall in plasma protein concentration. Histological examinations of the tissues show no changes other than those which can be ascribed to nutrition disturbance in endochondrial bone formation, thymic atrophy, atrophy and decreased fat content of the adrenals, and atrophy of the testicular tubules.

In dogs this amino acid has been shown to be necessary for plasma protein production (336) and for the maintenance of nitrogen balance (230).

Phenylalanine Deficiency in Man In man a negative nitrogen balance has been observed when dietary phenylalanine is restricted (260). It is unlikely that a deficiency of this amino acid can ever occur except under experimental conditions.

LEUCINE

Historical Leucine was shown to be an indispensable nutrient to the growth of rats by Womack and Rose in 1936 (261).

Biochemical Relationships The role of leucine in nutrition is obscure except that it has been shown to furnish carbon atoms for steroid formation (242).

Pathological Effects Leucine is necessary for the growth of rats (261, 263). In animals whose nitrogen requirements are supplied by the essential crystalline amino acids other than leucine specific effects on the ocular tissues and hypophysis have been reported by Maun et al (263). In the corner the epithelium becomes thinner and subsequently keratinized. The basal layers evidence an increased mitotic activity. There is an accompanying vascularization of the substantia propria—apparently most marked just beneath the epithelium. In addition, the iris and ciliary body exhibit leukocytic infiltration. No mention has been made of the condition of the various ocular glands. The hypophysis of the leucine deficient animal is said to be, on the average twice as large as the gland of the controls. No cellular alterations appear to occur and it is further stated that the distribution of the various types of cells is normal. Whether the increased weight is due to hypertrophy or hyperplasia has yet to be elucidated.

In dogs leucine appears to be necessary for plasma protein and hemoglobin formation (236, 256), in the rat on the other hand no evidence exists that leucine deficiency affects these two functions.

Leucine Deficiency in Man In man a negative nitrogen balance de-



FIGURE 21b Cystine Deficiency *A* Liver from rat on a low protein (5 per cent) high fat (30 per cent) choline supplemented diet. There is no fat accumulation in the intact hepatic cells. Most however show widespread fresh necrosis without hemorrhage. *B* Similar liver with exception that there is extensive hemorrhage in the necrotic areas.

If groups of rats are placed on diets whose protein content is supplied by mixtures of crystalline amino acids containing varying amounts of methionine and cystine the following differences are noted (274). When both methionine and cystine are absent, the animals lose weight and develop an uncharacterized anemia, hypoproteinemia and extensive hemorrhagic necrosis

METHIONINE

Historical Until 1937 both of the sulfur-containing amino acids methionine and cystine, were considered to be indispensable components of the diet. At that time however, Rose and his co-workers (270) demonstrated that cystine is a dispensable nutrient, for when adequate amounts of methionine are added to a cystine-free amino acid mixture, growth of rats fed this ration is normal. That methionine is converted into cystine in the normal rat, further clarifies their relationship.

Biochemical Relationships The metabolism of methionine is closely related to that of cystine, and in turn to choline, creatine and similar substances including a host of sulfur-containing compounds such as those enumerated on page 41. Methionine is indispensable except under stringent laboratory conditions i.e. when homocystine and choline are fed to rats on a methionine-free diet, the latter amino acid will be formed (271).

Methionine donates methyl groups to ethanolamine resulting in the formation of choline (272) (page 193). The stages in the transformation methionine \rightarrow cystine are thought to be as follows: methionine \rightarrow homocysteine methyl groups, homocysteine \rightarrow cystathione \rightarrow cysteine \rightarrow cystine. The sulfur of the cystine which results is derived from methionine, the carbon chain from serine.

Pathological Effects Since the metabolisms of methionine and choline are so closely related it is extremely difficult to separate the pathological manifestations of a deficiency of one from the other. So too, since methionine is a precursor of cystine it is difficult to separate the effects of deficiency of either of these two amino acids. When methionine is absent from the diet cystine obviously will be, too unless otherwise supplied.

From data which are already accumulated it appears that the effects of cystine and choline deficiency may be different (page 221). Investigations of cystine deficiency begin with the experiments of Weichselbaum (293) who noted jaundice before death and hemorrhages in the liver of rats post-mortem. The administration of cystine to such animals in the basal diet prevented the appearance of such lesions in addition moribund rats could be saved by the administration of cystine but not methionine. The cystine-methionine, choline deficiency question then became somewhat complex but Daft and his co-workers (294) in 1942 were able to separate the effects of cystine deficiency, hemorrhagic necrosis of the liver from choline deprivation which leads to extreme fatty infiltration and cirrhosis.

Experimental procedures employing crystalline amino acid mixtures supplemented with methionine and/or cystine in the presence of adequate choline have been reported (274) and confirm the previous work. The data are open to some criticism, however, as too few animals have been employed.

such dogs since if within 3 to 4 hours following the anesthesia this amino acid is injected intravenously, the animals recover. It is unlikely that such protective effects can be observed in normal dogs (284).

In summary, methionine itself appears to be necessary for hemoglobin and plasma protein production. This amino acid is necessary for the formation of cystine unless the latter is supplied in the diet. Lack of cystine appears to lead to liver necrosis and to changes in the hair.

Methionine Deficiency in Man When experimental subjects are placed for short periods on methionine-deficient diets a negative nitrogen balance develops (285, 288). It is difficult to conceive of uncomplicated methionine deficiency occurring other than experimentally in man.

VALINE

Historical The indispensability of valine in the diet of the rat was demonstrated in 1939 by Rose and Eppstein (286).

Biochemical Relationships Little is known of the role of valine in nutrition save that in the phlorhizinized dog valine has been shown to contribute three of its five carbon atoms to the formation of glucose (287).

Pathological Effects When rats are placed on a valine deficient diet they virtually stop eating and rapidly lose weight. In the terminal stages of the deficiency they exhibit unique signs which Rose and Eppstein (286) have described as follows: 'The rats become extremely sensitive to touch and display a severe lack of coordination in movement. They walk with a staggering gait. As the animal attempts to walk the left foreleg is raised inordinately and the head is retracted. Frequently the subjects show a rotary motion resembling that of a dog chasing its tail. This may be either clock or counter-clockwise and may continue until the animal falls to the floor of the cage from sheer exhaustion. As would be anticipated the symptoms are rapidly cured by the administration of valine without any other therapeutic measure.' No histological studies in such animals have been reported and of course are greatly to be desired.

Valine is necessary for plasma protein and hemoglobin formation in the dog (255, 256).

Valine Deficiency in Man When the amino acid is removed from an otherwise adequate human diet a negative nitrogen balance develops, this is interpreted to indicate that valine is indispensable for this species as well (288). It is hardly conceivable that valine deficiency could occur in man unless experimentally induced.

of the liver. When inadequate amounts of methionine but no cystine are added to the diet, the animals live a little longer but succumb with liver necrosis although no anemia or hypoproteinemia develop. When methionine is restricted but there is adequate dietary cystine, no liver necrosis is observed although there is a disturbance in hemoglobin and plasma protein formation. Apparently then methionine deficiency interferes with hemoglobin and plasma protein function while lack of cystine leads to liver necrosis which develops in the absence of fatty infiltration (page 193) as choline is present in the diet.

Since methionine is a precursor of cystine what little is known of the role of the latter amino acid in the organism should be mentioned. Some time ago cystine was shown to be a constituent of hair, various specimens of human hair which have been analyzed contain on the average almost 20 percent of this amino acid (275). That rats placed on a cystine-deficient diet will show an inhibition of hair growth is therefore not an unexpected finding (276). The hair of such animals is also abnormal in that the medullary cells are broader and more loosely packed, the cortical portion, which incidentally contains sulfur is narrower than control hair. It is unfortunate that histological studies of the skin of such animals have not been made. Other experiments employing diets deficient in sulfur-containing amino acids indicate a slightly increased production of hair when methionine is added into the diet (277). Another most interesting aspect of this problem was studied in a strain of hereditary hypotrichotic rats. When cysteine is administered to these animals growth of the hairy coat is stimulated. It is concluded that cysteine manifests this action because of the sulfhydryl group it contains (278). These observations have not been confirmed (279).

Some incidental observations of methionine deficiency in other species might be mentioned. This amino acid is necessary for the maintenance of nitrogen metabolism in the adult rat (280) and the dog (230). In addition it is apparently necessary for growth of the mouse (269) and for hemoglobin formation in anemic dogs (281).

The relationship of methionine to the maintenance of the integrity of the liver of protein-depleted dogs in the presence of poisons is an interesting one. Any results of course may be due to a choline or cystine effect. In dogs which are placed on a low protein intake and whose protein stores are reduced by plasmapheresis there is a reduction in tolerance to the intravenous administration of mapharsen as measured by the appearance of jaundice (282). The administration of methionine the day before the injection of the arsenical raises the tolerance of the animal in that larger doses of the drug are required to produce icterus. Then too if similar protein-depleted dogs are maintained under chloroform anesthesia for 30 minutes they die of necrosis of the liver (283). Methionine has a dramatic effect on

PART IV

THE FAT AND WATER-SOLUBLE VITAMINS

'All these diseases, with the exception of pellagra, can be prevented and cured by the addition of certain preventive substances, the deficient substances, which are of the nature of organic bases, we will call 'vitamines', and we will speak of a beriberi or scurvy vitamin, which means a substance preventing the special disease' Funk 1912 (1)

INTRODUCTION

A vitamin is usually defined as an organic substance, soluble in fat or water which is ordinarily needed only in minute quantities to maintain the metabolic integrity of certain cells and tissues. The term vitamin has been introduced to refer to substances having more or less similar biological activity but differing structurally, as for instance pyridoxine, pyridoxal, and pyridoxamine.

During the beginning of the second decade of this century, McCollum and Davis (300) and Osborne and Mendel (301) demonstrated a fat-soluble material that promoted growth in animals which had been placed on purified diets. This material was named fat-soluble vitamin A. In 1922, McCollum and his co-workers showed that vitamin A could be destroyed if oxygen was bubbled through cod liver oil and that a second fat-soluble material remained in cod-liver oil so treated, this substance or vitamin D proved advantageous in curing and preventing the manifestations of rickets. In the same year Evans and his group (390) showed that reproductive activity in rats was interfered with when animals were placed on synthetic diets containing certain fats, the addition of wheat-germ oil to such rations restored reproductive activity to normal. The active substance in wheat-germ oil was named vitamin E (the fifth vitamin to be isolated). About ten years later the fourth member of the fat-soluble group vitamin K, was discovered (436).

The characteristic of fat solubility which these four substances display is of some importance since any interference with the absorption of lipids from the intestinal tract will hinder the absorption of these vitamins as well. For instance if bile and/or pancreatic juice are absent or present in inadequate quantities a conditioned deficiency of all four of the fat-soluble vitamins may occur. In man signs of deficiency in vitamin A, D and K have repeatedly been seen under such circumstances. Adequate evidence for the occurrence of vitamin E deficiency in the human is lacking. Although the structural changes associated with deficiency of the fat-soluble vitamins have been described and studied rather fully the underlying mechanisms of the biochemical defects are less clearly understood, especially in comparison with what is known of the function of the water-soluble group.

The story of the development of our knowledge of the group of water-soluble vitamins as a whole is far more complex than that of the fat-soluble series. What follows is a very brief resume of long and heart-rending investigations. By 1915 McCollum had separated 2 growth provoking substances fat-soluble vitamin A and water-soluble vitamin B which occurred in yeast (759). Ten years later the water-soluble substance in yeast was

PART IV

THE FAT AND WATER-SOLUBLE VITAMINS

| | |
|--|-----|
| Introduction | 89 |
| Vitamin A | 91 |
| Vitamins D | 104 |
| Vitamins E (Alpha tocopherol and its Homologs) | 119 |
| Vitamin K | 128 |
| Ascorbic Acid | 130 |
| Thiamine | 145 |
| Riboflavin | 158 |
| Nicotinic Acid | 166 |
| Pantothenic Acid | 173 |
| Pyridoxine | 182 |
| Choline | 191 |
| Biotin | 195 |
| Folic Acid (<i>L. Casei Factor</i>) | 202 |
| Inositol | 204 |
| Para Aminobenzoic Acid | 205 |

Vitamin A

Historical In 1913 two groups of investigators, McCollum and Davis (300) and Osborne and Mendel (301) reported that certain fats contain an essential nutrient for rats, without this substance animals fail to grow in normal fashion. Several years later, Steenbock (302) suggested that the active principle or vitamin A as the material had then been designated, was carotene, a yellow pigment derived from plant and animal tissues. During the next ten years the exact identity of vitamin A remained unsettled and in much confusion, in 1930 carotene was shown to be pro-vitamin A (303). Karrer (304-305) then worked out the chemical constitution of both carotene and vitamin A and completed the story in 1936 when a pure material was synthesized (306).

Biochemical Relationships There are a number of closely related substances (carotenes) which behave as pro-vitamin A, of these, the most potent is beta-carotene. The carotenes and vitamin A are absorbed from the intestine and the majority of each is stored in the liver. Here the carotene portion is broken down into vitamin A by an enzyme carotenase (307). As in the case of the other fat-soluble vitamins bile and/or pancreatic juice facilitate absorption from the intestines, vitamin A deficiency may develop when these secretions are diminished or absent (308). Although the major portion of the organism's store of vitamin A is found in the liver other tissues also contain varying amounts as has been demonstrated by chemical and histological studies. The following values indicate the tissue distributions of vitamin A (in British Units per gram) as determined by chemical procedures on rats (309): liver, 40 000; kidney, 50; lung, 450; adrenal, 2500; heart, 1; spleen, 2; pancreas, 25; thymus, 12; brain, 0.3; muscle, 0.5; blood, 2.

The fluorescent properties of vitamin A have been utilized to study the histological distribution of this nutrient. When formalin-fixed sections of tissue are viewed under a source of ultraviolet light of wave length 328 millimicrons a fading green fluorescence is observed which is interpreted to be due to the presence of vitamin A. This histochemical test is apparently not as sensitive as ordinary chemical determinations since the technique fails to reveal the vitamin in tissues where chemical tests indicate that it is present.

Little is known of the function of vitamin A in biological systems, except for the role it plays in visual processes. Based on observations that when dietary vitamin A is restricted the ability to see under subdued illumination is diminished a theory has been developed for the physiological activity of vitamin A in rod vision (311).

Rhodopsin, a photosensitive carotenoid protein pigment, is found in the

shown to be dual in nature, since upon autoclaving its B vitamin content was destroyed (761). The heat stable portion was soon broken down into a fairly large group of materials most of which were identified during the 1930s and early 1940s: riboflavin in 1935, nicotinic acid in 1937, pyridoxine in 1939, pantothenic acid in 1940, and biotin in 1942. In addition, the dietary importance of choline had been demonstrated in 1932, and inositol and para-aminobenzoic acid were added to the list in 1940 and 1941, respectively. The most recent member of the B group is *L. casei* factor or folic acid which was synthesized in 1945.

Ascorbic acid of course stands apart biologically from the above vitamins. Scurvy was the first dietary deficiency disease to be recognized with any certainty, and vitamin C was designated as the active principle, ascorbic acid was not identified until 1932.

A number of other water-soluble substances have been described and designated as vitamins. However evidence of their true identity has not been presented in sufficient detail to warrant a discussion of them in this volume.

The functions of the water-soluble vitamins are more clearly understood than are those of the fat-soluble group. A number have now been shown to act as parts of coenzymes in biological processes. These include thiamine (cocarboxylase), nicotinic acid (phosphopyridine nucleotides), riboflavin (xanthine oxidase, dehydrogenase) and pyridoxine (cocarboxylase).

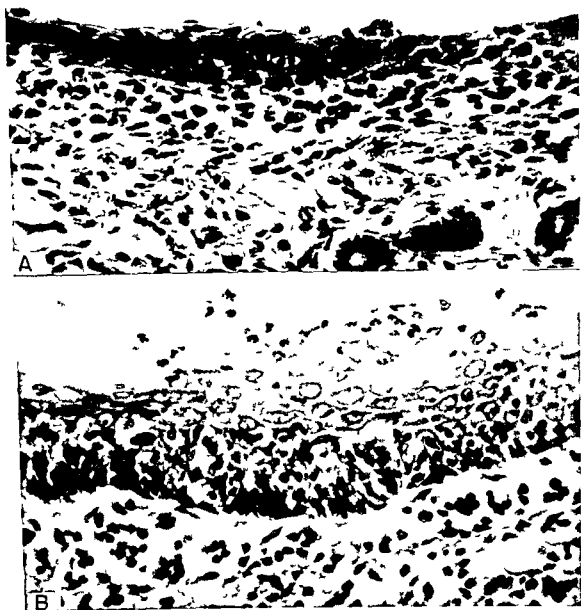


FIGURE 22 Trachea *A* and *B* show different degrees of epithelial metaplasia in the vitamin A deficient rat. The normal ciliated and columnar lining has been replaced by a multilayered one which is infiltrated by leukocytes.

decrease in size is at the expense of the cytoplasm, the nucleus does not appear to change its dimensions. Such foci then spread to embrace large areas of the epithelial lining where small syncytial-like masses of cells appear, derived from the atrophic elements. These cell masses rapidly proliferate and undermine the overlying atrophic columnar cells. Growth activity of this metaplastic epithelium seems to be augmented, and the cell groups rapidly develop into a keratinized type of epithelium which spreads

rods of a number of mammalian species. When light acts upon rhodopsin (visual purple) photic and thermal reactions occur and it is bleached to a compound composed of protein and a carotenoid substance named *retinene*. The latter further breaks down into vitamin A. The visual cycle is completed by vitamin A and protein uniting to form rhodopsin. Vitamin A appears to be destroyed in this reaction, hence a continual supply is necessary. In the presence of inadequate vitamin A, rod vision is diminished or absent. In other words the eye becomes "night blind," since the rods are responsible for vision under subdued illumination.

Pathological Effects As a result of the studies of Wolbach and Howe and others a deficiency of vitamin A has been shown to affect the integrity of certain epithelial tissues as well as bone and teeth.

Epithelium Microscopic changes in epithelial structures have been described in the rat (312), guinea pig (313), fox (314), mouse (315) and monkey (316).

As interpreted by Wolbach (317), specific changes are found in those epithelia whose cells have a secreting (chemical) function in addition to the role of a covering layer and whose functioning cells are without power to divide. Epithelial cells comprising the following organ systems have been reported to be affected:

a Digestive system: parotid, submandibular, sublingual and all accessory glands of the tongue, buccal cavity and pharynx, ducts of pancreas.

b Respiratory tract: nares, sinuses, Jacobsen's organ, larynx, trachea and bronchi.

c Genito-urinary system: renal pelvis, ureter, bladder, urethra, epididymis, prostate, seminal vesicles, coagulating glands, uterus, oviducts, glands of vulva and vagina.

d Special senses: eyes including cornea and accessory glands (hardening intra- and extraorbital and tarsal) and retina.

e Endocrine system: thymus, hypophysis (pituitary).

The reason for the involvement of and the degree of damage to various epithelial tissues is not clear. No relationship has been found as yet between the chemical and/or microscopic distribution of vitamin A and the occurrence or non occurrence of tissue changes. An explanation based on embryological grounds is untenable, nor does the order in which various organs are affected by the characteristic keratinizing metaplasia give any clue. Wolbach (317) has epitomized the pathogenesis of the epithelial lesions as "atrophy of the epithelium concerned, reparative proliferation of basal cells and growth and differentiation of the new products into a stratified keratinizing epithelium."

If one takes the trachea as an example, microscopic examination reveals focal areas of atrophy of the columnar cells to be the initial change. The

which has led to extensive studies of the relationship of vitamin A to normal visual processes. Night blindness has been observed physiologically in animals (321) and of course in man. It is therefore not surprising that when severe degrees of vitamin A deficiency are produced in rats anatomical changes may be elicited in the retina (322). Depending on the degree of the deficiency, degeneration of the retina first manifests itself in the visual neuro-epithelial cells, the rods and then progresses in order through the outer nuclear layer, the outer molecular layer and the inner nuclear layer. The

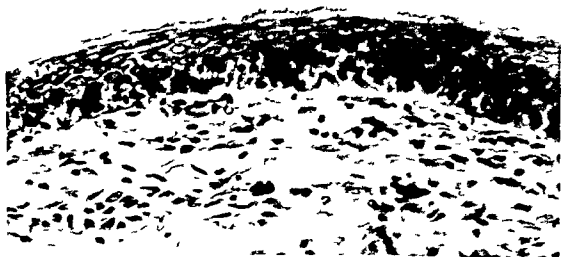


FIGURE 25 Cornea. This vitamin A deficient rat shows extensive metaplasia of the corneal epithelium. There is also vascularization of the underlying substantia propria and leukocytic infiltration.

ganglion cells themselves, are unaffected even in severely deficient animals. The outer segments of the rods, which have degenerated, are capable of regeneration following therapy, if however more extensive changes have occurred treatment is ineffectual. It will be recalled that the rat, for the most part a nocturnal animal, has very few cones, too few for them to appear often in sections, so that the reaction of these structures to vitamin A deficiency has not been described.

Skin. Despite changes in the epithelium at other sites, relatively few cutaneous alterations have been ascribed to a lack of vitamin A in experimental animals. In the human, however, Frazier and Hu (323) describe a rough, dry skin which microscopically shows hyperkeratosis and hyperkeratotic plugs in the hair follicles. For over a decade such changes have been interpreted as pathognomonic of vitamin A deficiency. The specificity of these lesions has recently been questioned on both theoretical as well as experimental grounds.

so that as the deficiency progresses, the entire trachea may come to be lined by metaplastic epithelium, whose keratinization results in the accumulation of a detritus of keratinized material in the lumen of the trachea. The increased growth activity of epithelium which has been described by Wolbach is questioned by Friedenwald and his associates (318). Quantitative studies of mitotic activity of healing wounds in the corner of vitamin A deficient rats reveal that the overall mitotic rate for each thousand basal cells is reduced by thirty percent from the normal and the speed of the mitotic cycle is likewise inhibited. Such observations furnish the first quantitative evidence on this fundamental point.

When vitamin A is administered, repair is extremely rapid and diffuse in contrast to the focal development of the initial changes when the animal is placed on a deficient regimen (319). All cells composing the basal layers which are apparently analogous to the stratum germinativum of the skin have the power to proliferate. Such cells differentiate into their former columnar forms and the overlying strata which have apparently irreversibly differentiated, are sloughed off and removed by autolytic phenomena. The tracheal epithelium thus regains its normal morphological appearance.

Some mention must be made of the relationship of the changes in the epithelium of certain specific tissues to the subsequent course of events. In the respiratory tract, for instance, the normal ciliated epithelium lining the trachea and bronchi is replaced by keratinizing cells. Consequently the continuous streaming of surface material towards the pharynx is abolished. Since a protective mechanism of the host has been eliminated pulmonary infections are consequently a common accompaniment of vitamin A deficiency. In the urinary tract renal and cystal calculi have been frequently observed in animals chronically deficient in vitamin A. Such stones result from the inspissation of keratinized material derived from the lining of the renal pelvis and bladder.

Ocular Apparatus Lesions of the eye are of particular importance, especially from the diagnostic standpoint. Xerosis and keratomalacia were the first manifestations of vitamin A deficiency to be described in man. The corneal epithelium shows the characteristic metaplasia seen elsewhere (551). In addition there is vascularization of the substantia propria but this is interpreted as a secondary phenomena which results from the keratinization of the epithelium in association with infection (557). It is interesting to speculate as to how much such changes are due to vitamin A deficiency and how much they may be secondary to a diminution of the secretion of the ocular glands because of obstruction of the latter's ducts. Keratitis of course occurs when the secretion of tears is abnormal as for instance in Sjogren's syndrome in the human (320).

Another of the early manifestations of vitamin A deficiency is nyctalopia

reveals an atrophic single layered, epithelial covering. Following the withdrawal of vitamin A, there is some return to normal thickness. More important, however, extensive keratinization occurs in the epithelium, especially that of the hair follicles. Such lesions have a superficial resemblance to the changes described by Frazier and Hu (323) in the human.

Reproductive System Extensive investigations have been reported on the effect of vitamin A deficiency on the male germinal epithelium and on reproduction in the female rat. When male rats are placed on a diet deficient in vitamin A, there is atrophy of the germinal epithelium a change which occurs fairly rapidly, according to Mason (325) more rapidly than similar morphologic alterations which result from inanition. The difference is apparently one of degree since in both inanition and vitamin A deficiency some of the basal cells persist so that when food intake or vitamin A are restored there follows a rapid return to normal unlike the irreversible changes which occur in the vitamin L-deficient testis (page 122).

In the female there is an alteration in the vaginal smear so that rats markedly deficient in vitamin A show a continuous cornification of the cells (326). As a result the estrous cycle in such animals including the human cannot be interpreted. In moderate deficiency states in experimental animals one encounters periods of partial cornification which can be interpreted as metestrus and diestrus. Periods of complete cornification doubtless coincide with proestrus and estrus. The vitamin A-deficient female is capable of normal ovulation, implantation and endocrine activity. However depending on the severity of the deficiency reproductive function is interfered with. Death of the fetus occurs in utero, such fetuses may be either resorbed or expelled. Gestation may be prolonged and a few young may be born alive to die shortly after. Mason interprets the primary change as occurring not in the embryo proper as in vitamin E deficiency but rather as a result of alteration in the lining of the reproductive tract. For at the junction of the fetal and maternal tissues there are localized areas of infection and necrosis in which bacteria have been stunted. Such areas of destruction of tissue interfere with the nutrition of the embryo. It may be, too that there is a bacteremia of the embryo. Such a possibility has not been explored. It would be most interesting to culture the uterine cavities to determine the prevailing bacterial flora.

Females on vitamin A-deficient diets may be bred and from some litters have been removed by Cesarean section. All of such young have abnormal development of the eyes, lack of differentiation of the lids and cornea and disorganization of the retina (337).

Bone and Nervous Tissues In their early studies of vitamin A deficiency Wolbach and Howe (312) noted impairment of epiphyseal bone formation and interpreted this to be a manifestation of the general inanition which their



FIGURE 24 Tongue of vitamin A deficient rat. Note large cystic structure filled with keratinized debris. The normal lining epithelium is keratinized and the orifice of the duct has become obstructed. Smaller cysts are seen on either side. H and E.

Sullivan and Evans (324) call attention to the present concept of the pathogenesis of the lesions of vitamin A deficiency: atrophy followed by metaplastic epithelial hyperkeratinization. They find it difficult to imagine how such changes can occur in the skin since this structure is, of course, already keratinized. It thus appears that metaplastic keratinization cannot occur unless the epithelium is atrophic. A vitamin A-deficient ration which was essential in all other respects, particularly the B group and the essential fatty acids, was therefore concocted. Grossly and microscopically no dermal lesions appear when rats are placed on this diet. When, however, the ration is made deficient in other factors, especially the heat-stable B components, changes do develop. For example, in such an experiment rats are given adequate vitamin A, but inadequate amounts of the B group until marked deficiencies of the latter vitamins are present. Vitamin A is then withdrawn and the animals are continued on maintenance levels of the B complex. Microscopic examination of the skin before vitamin A therapy is stopped

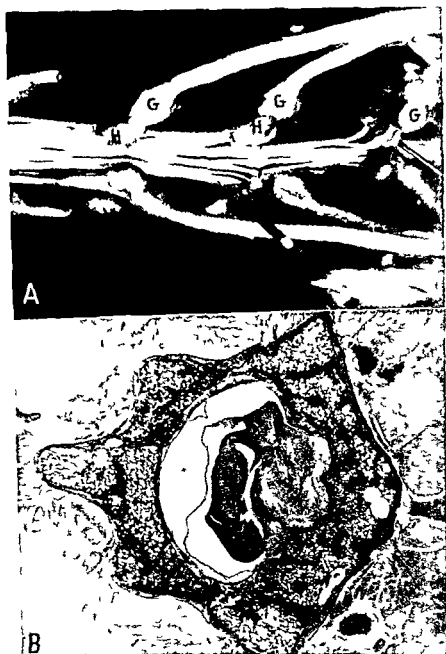


FIGURE 25 Skeleton Vitamin A deficient rat In A the nerve roots (H) show deformities due to herniation through the vertebral foramina In B which is a cross section of a vertebra the herniation is better seen (Courtesy of Dr S B Wolbach and the *Archives of Pathology*)

bach feels that appositional bone formation continues in the shaft and elsewhere until inanition supervenes (771)

That vitamin A has a potent effect on bone growth has been even more conclusively demonstrated by Wolbach's observations in various species in hypervitaminosis A (317-771) When large amounts of the vitamin are ad-

animals exhibited. At about the same time neurological signs together with lesions in the nervous tissues began to assume a prominent place in the syndrome of experimental vitamin A deficiency. Mellanby (327) as well as others had studied and reported degeneration of the cranial and peripheral nerves together with lesions in the gray and white matter of the brain and spinal cord. It was postulated, therefore, that vitamin A had a specific effect on nervous tissues, despite the fact that there was no agreement whatsoever as to the pathogenesis or the distribution pattern of the lesions. In 1941 Wolbach and Bessey (328) clarified the matter and stated that they were forced to 'the paradoxical conviction that the genesis of the nerve lesions of vitamin A deficiency requires an essentially normal rate of growth of a normal nervous system and that mechanical injury, the result of a disproportion between the central nervous system and its bony enclosure is the explanation.' This interpretation is based on several important observations. In the first place, lesions can only be produced in young, actively growing animals. When rats are placed on a vitamin A-deficient regimen after a certain critical age, neurological manifestations fail to appear, but when the dietary vitamin A content of weanling animals is restricted evidence of involvement of the nervous tissue appears with regularity during the eighth week. Then too the pattern of the lesions has no rhyme or reason either in a single animal or when several animals are compared one with another. The reason for this was demonstrated by careful dissection of the nervous tissues within their bony coverings. The cerebellum may be found herniated into the foramen magnum. There may be multiple herniations of the cerebrum and cerebellum into the dural venous sinuses at the site of the arachnoidal villi. There is usually an overcrowding of the spinal canal by its contents so that the spinal cord is distorted and the nerve roots herniate into the intervertebral foramina and erode the vertebral bodies. That these phenomena are a result of vitamin A deficiency alone has been conclusively proved since disturbances in growth produced by inanition or other specific nutritional deficiencies effect the rate of growth of skeletal and nervous tissues alike. Furthermore that the bone is at fault rather than that there is an overgrowth of nervous tissue can be shown since growth of the latter is normal. In addition the regenerative capacity of the axon is unimpaired.

It is clear that Wolbach and Bessey's (328) observations prove that vitamin A has a specific effect on endochondral bone formation. As yet Wolbach has been unable to detect any specific or characteristic effects on this phase of osteogenesis. The changes appear to be non-specific and resemble those seen in any bone which has stopped growing as a result of lack of calories or nutrients other than vitamin D or ascorbic acid. However Wol-



FIGURE 76 Lower incisor tooth for a vitamin A deficient rat. There is a wide band of dentin under the enamel (empty space). A characteristic proliferation of odontoblasts is also seen. (Courtesy of Dr. Paul E. Boyle.)

on the lingual and lateral margins. Odontogenic epithelium is also responsible for the organization of mesenchymal pulp cells into odontoblasts of a "polarized" or functional type, the latter cells then lay down dentine which, while building up, is calcified and is responsible for the growth of the tooth. In the normal growth of the rat's incisor one may then expect an orderly sequence as follows: 1. Proliferation of ameloblasts; 2. Differentiation of ameloblasts; 3. Differentiation of odontoblasts; 4. Formation of dentine matrix; 5. Calcification of dentine and enamel.

ministered, the bones become extremely fragile so that numerous fractures result. Bone growth is greatly accelerated so that "it is possible to get the equivalent of a year's growth in a ten to fifteen day period" (329). Wolbach interprets this action of vitamin A as an acceleration of "remodeling sequences in conformity to normal growth pattern. The remodeling takes place in spite of a retardation of linear growth of bone and is correlated with accelerated epiphyseal cartilage sequences. Those sequences retarded or suppressed in vitamin A deficiency are grotesquely and dramatically accelerated by the excess" (329).

Besides the cessation of bone growth which occurs as a result of vitamin A deficiency certain other osseous changes are encountered. Mellinby (327) who has interpreted virtually all the neurological changes on the basis of bony overgrowth, has described hyperostoses about the petrous labyrinth and certain of the foramina of the skull in dogs. Wolbach and Bessey (328) note such changes in the inner ear, narrowing of the optic foramina has been observed in calves (330). The significance and cause of these localized outgrowths of bone are not clear and all require further investigation.

From the studies of the nervous tissues in rats it is to be expected that an increase in intracranial pressure occurs when these and other animals are placed on vitamin A-deficient diets. In deficient calves a quantitative rise in cerebrospinal fluid pressure has been observed (331, 332). Ophthalmoscopic examination may reveal papilledema. Cerebrospinal fluid values may rise from the normal of 70 millimeters of water to as high as 240 millimeters. A further manifestation of increased intracranial pressure in such animals is the occurrence of cysts in the hypophysis which are not encountered in normal animals, they are observed in the posterior lobe and cause compression of the gland which is followed by atrophy and necrosis. Measurements of the cysts have not been given, one, however, is said to have contained 75 milliliters of fluid (333). In the same species blindness has been observed but it is not entirely clear how much of a role each of these factors play: increased intracranial pressure, narrowing of the optic foramina by bony overgrowth and degeneration of the retina.

Teeth. Because of the epithelial origin of the teeth it is not surprising to find that deficiency of vitamin A profoundly affects their growth. The studies reported in rats and guinea pigs are all in agreement and the underlying changes appear to be well established (334, 335, 336). Before describing the alterations which occur in the rat's incisor it would seem advantageous to review briefly the normal development of this structure (336). Growth of the rat's incisor results from the proliferation of a group of epithelial cells at the base of the tooth. Such odontogenic epithelium differentiates into ameloblasts which form enamel on the outer or labial surface of the tooth and cementoblasts which form the cementum which is deposited



FIGURE 76 Lower incisor tooth for a vitamin A deficient rat. There is a wide band of dentin under the enamel (empty space). A characteristic proliferation of odontoblasts is also seen. (Courtesy of Dr. Paul E. Boyle.)

on the lingual and lateral margins. Odontogenic epithelium is also responsible for the organization of mesenchymal pulp cells into odontoblasts of a "polarized" or functional type, the latter cells then lay down dentine which while building up is calcified and is responsible for the growth of the tooth. In the normal growth of the rat's incisor one may then expect an orderly sequence as follows: 1. Proliferation of ameloblasts; 2. Differentiation of ameloblasts; 3. Differentiation of odontoblasts; 4. Formation of dentine matrix; 5. Calcification of dentine and enamel.

In vitamin A-deficient animals the first and principle change is found in the odontoblasts. It will be remembered, however, that such cells are organized by the odontogenic epithelium, hence, although in the early stages of the deficiency the latter cells are morphologically not abnormal, the physiological stimulus they ordinarily provide appears to be inadequate. The odontoblasts do not differentiate or arrange themselves in normal fashion and in consequence dentine is formed irregularly and in varying amounts. The lingual dentine is thin while that deposited over the labial surface is thicker than normal. It has been suggested that masticatory stresses may lead to this difference (336). The odontoblasts show varying degrees of development, being more poorly differentiated proximally than distally, possibly because the former cells are younger and more deficient than those which are more distal and therefore, older.

In the early stages of vitamin A-deficiency the odontogenic epithelium appears to be normal morphologically though not so physiologically, later, profound anatomical changes are observed. The cells exhibit such a lack of differentiation that virtually no recognizable ameloblasts can be found. Consequently there is a great reduction in the deposition of enamel, as a result enamel hypoplasia is a prominent manifestation of advanced vitamin A deficiency. Since the odontogenic epithelium does not stop its proliferative activity, cords of undifferentiated epithelium invade the pulpal tissues where they form nests of cells. Some of these are able to stimulate the neighboring mesenchyme to abortive effects of dentine formation and in this fashion numerous concretions may be formed. Loss of the yellow pigment of the incisor teeth of rats has been described when rats deficient in vitamin A are employed (429).

In the rat and guinea pig all of the above changes are reversible following adequate treatment with vitamin A (334, 336).

In summary, vitamin A deficiency leads to changes in many epithelial tissues where metaplastic keratinization occurs. In addition there are physiological and morphological disturbances in the retina and derangement in the growth of bones and teeth.

Vitamin A Deficiency in Man. Both physiological and morphological evidence of vitamin A deficiency may be detected in man. In the United States, however, clinical evidence of this deficiency is uncommon and alterations in the tissues at autopsy are rarely seen. On the other hand in the Orient particularly in China (338), the clinical manifestations of vitamin A deficiency are much more common, here, however, the syndrome which is observed is not usually caused by a deficiency of vitamin A alone but of other essential nutrients as well.

Many attempts have been made to place the diagnosis of vitamin A deficiency on an evaluation of the levels of carotene and/or vitamin A in the

blood serum. It has become apparent, however, that the levels considered normal or subnormal in this country must be revised in view of data which have been accumulated in China (338) where blood levels have been correlated with the clinical manifestations of the disease and indicate that the levels used to delineate vitamin A deficiency in this country are too high.

The characteristic clinical signs of vitamin A deficiency are said to include xerosis, keratomalacia, nyctalopia, and a papular dermatitis. The xerosis or hyperkeratosis of the conjunctivae, has the same appearance microscopically as similar changes in these tissues of experimental animals that is, keratinizing metaplasia. Identical changes occur in the corneal epithelium which are followed by vascularization, inflammation, and sometimes perforation. Nyctalopia at one time was said to be common in this country but there is now a growing feeling that night blindness resulting from vitamin A-deficient diets is uncommon and that there is very little relation between the vitamin A content of the diet, the blood concentration of this vitamin and dark adaptation (339). The skin changes which have been thought to be specific for vitamin A deficiency have been discussed above where the conclusion is reached that the papular dermatitis which has been thought to be pathognomonic results from a deficiency of not only vitamin A but portions of the B complex as well (324).

Several trials have been made to elicit uncomplicated vitamin A deficiency in experimental subjects. The characteristic clinical manifestations of this deficient state have not been produced however even though such volunteers have remained on a vitamin A-deficient regimen for fairly long periods of time (340).

At autopsies performed in this country the manifestations of vitamin A deficiency are far more common in children than in adults. Blackfan and Wolbach (341) have described the postmortem findings in a group of children whose clinical course was characterized by severe respiratory infections. Typical keratinizing metaplasia was found in the kidney pelvis, bladder, the lining of the nasal sinuses, the respiratory tract and in other tissues similar to those affected in experimental animals. Of particular interest were the pulmonary lesions which consisted of bronchitis, bronchiolitis and lobular pneumonia all of which were extreme. It was apparent that in the absence of normal ciliated epithelium bacteria were not disposed of in the usual fashion and were able to grow, invade the bronchial walls and produce inflammation of the surrounding structures. Since a number of cases of vitamin A deficiency studied by these and other investigators have revealed cystic fibrosis of the pancreas or biliary obstruction it is concluded that absence of the pancreatic or hepatic secretions leads to poor or inadequate vitamin A absorption.

Changes similar to those observed in the enamel organ of the rat have

been described in this structure of an infant exhibiting other manifestations of vitamin A deficiency, but since the general incidence of vitamin A deprivation in children is so low, it is unlikely that a deficiency of this nutrient is ever a common cause of enamel hypoplasia in the human (342)

At autopsy, morphological evidence of vitamin A deficiency in the adult is much more uncommon than in children. In fact, aside from the clinical manifestations referred to above, instances of clear-cut examples of keratinizing metaplasia in the adult are virtually non-existent except for the occurrence of xerosis in the eye. It should be pointed out that several years ago based upon observations in animals and little else vitamin A deficiency was introduced as a prominent cause of urinary calculi in man. Studies by Jewett et al (343) who utilized the dark adaptation technique and whose material was examined by the present writer would seem to show conclusively that vitamin A deficiency is a rare cause of urinary calculi in man in this country at least.

Vitamins D

Historical Although manifestations of rickets have been recognized from earliest times not until the middle of the 17th century was the disease shown to be a clinical entity. Pathological studies of the bones of animals and humans were made during the last century, such observations culminated in the morphological investigations of Pommer which were published in 1885 (345). Pommer outlined the broad principles of the pathological changes in rickets. Subsequent workers have only confirmed and amplified his conclusions.

Until the end of the second decade of the present century rickets had not been consistently produced in the laboratory. In 1918 Mellanby (346) announced from England that "Rickets is a condition primarily due to the lack of an accessory factor in the diet." Further studies (347) published several years later showed that cod liver oil, but not certain other fats has antirachitic effects, and that environmental conditions such as close confinement, appear to contribute to the development of the changes in the skeleton. Mellanby's rations were not adequate in other respects particularly fat-soluble vitamin A. In addition, the diagnosis of rickets was based in large part on the gross appearance of his dogs not on histological observations of the bones.

At the same time similar experiments were being carried out in this country, here it was conclusively demonstrated how important the calcium and phosphorus content of the diet is in relation to the development of bone changes. In 1921 Sherman and Pappenheimer (348) announced the production of rickets in rats by a diet deficient in phosphorus. The addition of phosphate protected against the development of skeletal changes. Similar

experiments were reported simultaneously by McCollum Simmonds Shipley, and Park (349, 350) who, employing a variety of diets, produced bone changes which were proved to be rickets by microscopic examination. Such studies similarly pointed to the importance of the phosphate content of the diet, and further showed that lack of fat-soluble vitamin A seemed to be another important factor in the pathogenesis of the disease. The Johns Hopkins investigators then went on to demonstrate that the inclusion of cod liver oil in the diet leads to the deposition of lime salts in the bones of rachitic rats (351) and that cod liver oil contains a curative substance not present in butter fat. The existence of two fat-soluble vitamins was demonstrated when oxygen was bubbled through cod liver oil a procedure which destroys vitamin A while the antirachitic potency remains intact (352). Lastly the clinical efficacy of cod liver oil was proved for when this material was administered to rachitic children roentgenograms and histological studies clearly indicated that lime salts had been deposited in the bones (353).

While these studies were going on attention was also centered upon Huldchinsky's (354) observation that ultra-violet light has a curative effect on clinical rickets. The entire story was brought to a close when Steenbock (355) and Hess (356) simultaneously showed that when various substances were irradiated antirachitic properties appeared. The precursors of these active materials were demonstrated to be ergosterol and cholesterol.

Biochemical Relationships Of the many forms of vitamin D which have now been discovered (357) two activated ergosterol (viosterol or calciferol) and activated cholesterol (7-dehydro cholesterol), are the most important, both are used extensively in the prophylaxis and therapy of rickets. Aside from these dietary forms of vitamin D, the organism is able to obtain adequate amounts of antirachitic substance from the activation by sunlight of the pro-vitamin in the skin. Hess and Weinstock (358) proved this by feeding human or calf skin to rats on a rachitogenic diet. While non-irradiated skin has little or no healing effect, dermal tissues which have been radiated with ultra-violet rays *in vitro* do have antirachitic power. These observations show conclusively why ultra-violet irradiation is so important in the cure and prophylaxis of rickets and also help explain the geographical distribution of the disease.

Efforts to elucidate the mode of action of vitamin D have been directed at its general role in calcium and phosphorus metabolism. Evidence has been adduced that vitamin D enhances the absorption of calcium from the intestinal tract (359). On the other hand, phosphorus absorption appears to be unaffected by the presence or absence of the vitamin (360). Utilizing radioactive calcium and phosphorus such observations have been repeated and confirmed (361-362).

Evidence for a local or tissue effect of vitamin D on bone is less con-

clusive. Although it has been postulated that this vitamin promotes the conversion of inorganic phosphorus to organic forms in the bone (362, 363), more data are necessary before any final conclusions can be drawn.

Normal Bone Growth In order that the pathologic changes which take place in rickets and in scurvy too, will be more intelligible a brief discussion of normal osteogenesis will be presented the anatomical aspects first, followed by pertinent data on the composition of bone and what little is known of its morphogenic physiology.

Histogenically two types of bone are recognized membranous and endochondral (364). The former is found in certain portions of the skull but concerns us little since it comprises only a small part of the total skeletal system. It suffices to say that in the formation of this type of bone, lime salts that is calcium and phosphorus, are deposited in sheets of connective tissue. From the second type, endochondral bone, develop the bony tissues of the extremities, the ribs certain bones at the base of the skull, et cetera. To epitomize the formation of this type, lime salts are first deposited in the matrices of cartilaginous plates. Blood vessels then grow into these plates and begin to erode the cartilage cells, osteoblasts follow and deposit osteoid on the now calcified cartilaginous matrix. Similar material which is rapidly turned into bone is deposited about the periphery of such cartilage plates to form the future shaft and to allow the structure to increase in width.

Growth in length of the bone is brought about by a continuous proliferation and maturation of cartilage cells which make up the epiphyseal cartilage at the ends of the bony shaft. The cells come to be arranged in parallel rows at the cartilage shaft junction and as they mature such cells grow larger and larger. It is assumed that the lowermost ones die, thus becoming ready for invasion by capillaries from the shaft. Coincident with these changes in the cartilage cells, lime salts are deposited in the matrix substance between them. The tissue is thus transformed into a sort of honeycomb into which the capillaries grow. The blood vessels are accompanied by osteoblasts which deposit the organic portion of bone osteoid, on the spicules of calcified cartilaginous matrix. Simultaneously inorganic salts of calcium and phosphorus are deposited in this organic matrix. Bone therefore, is composed of an organic protein of collagenous-like material and inorganic salts. Bone deposited in this fashion at the cartilage shaft junction is soon destroyed in order to lighten the structure. So too the shaft is continuously remodeled and growth in width keeps pace with growth in length as a result of new formation on the outer surface of the cortex and destruction along the inner margins. In the human bone growth is most active during infancy. After 2 to 3 years of age growth of the cartilage slows down tremendously, remodeling sequences are likewise reduced in the shaft. However it must be clearly understood that even in the adult bone is not a static or "dead"



FIGURE 2. Normal bone The costo-chondral junction from a six months-old colored boy dying acutely of bacillary dysentery. Note small undifferentiated cartilage cells lying in an haphazard fashion at top. These are arranged in rows and become larger at the straight and even cartilage shaft junction. Here they are being invaded by capillaries. The dark staining material between the rows is calcified cartilaginous matrix upon which as the capillaries destroy the cartilage cells osteoblasts deposit osteoid which is instantaneously converted into bone by the deposition of lime salts in it. Note presence of calcified matrix in some of the bony trabeculae deeper in the shaft. The marrow elements are found close to the cartilage shaft junction a normal phenomenon. H. and E., $\times 13$.

tissue. Quite the contrary, bone is being continually destroyed and rebuilt, such metabolic activity is pronounced as can be demonstrated with radioactive isotopes of calcium and phosphorus.

As noted above, bone consists of inorganic and organic materials which are intimately related. The organic portion is mainly protein in nature. Calcium and phosphorus comprise the greater portion of the inorganic constituents of bone. In addition, however, there are appreciable quantities of sodium, magnesium, potassium, carbonate, citrate, fluoride, sulfate, chloride, as well as other elements. Since the amounts of these materials vary from specimen to specimen, it is quite clear that the structure of bone is determined by the blood concentrations of its various constituents. The calcium and phosphorus content is fairly constant, however, being in the order of 2 to 1. The precise chemical composition of bone is complex and is not

clusive Although it has been postulated that this vitamin promotes the conversion of inorganic phosphorus to organic forms in the bone (362, 363), more data are necessary before any final conclusions can be drawn

Normal Bone Growth In order that the pathologic changes which take place in rickets and in scurvy too will be more intelligible, a brief discussion of normal osteogenesis will be presented the anatomical aspects first followed by pertinent data on the composition of bone and what little is known of its morphogenic physiology

Histogenically two types of bone are recognized membranous and endochondral (364) The former is found in certain portions of the skull but concerns us little since it comprises only a small part of the total skeletal system It suffices to say that in the formation of this type of bone, lime salts, that is calcium and phosphorus, are deposited in sheets of connective tissue From the second type, endochondral bone, develop the bony tissues of the extremities, the ribs certain bones at the base of the skull et cetera To epitomize the formation of this type, lime salts are first deposited in the matrices of cartilaginous plates Blood vessels then grow into these plates and begin to erode the cartilage cells osteoblasts follow and deposit osteoid on the now calcified cartilaginous matrix Similar material which is rapidly turned into bone is deposited about the periphery of such cartilage plates to form the future shaft and to allow the structure to increase in width

Growth in length of the bone is brought about by a continuous proliferation and maturation of cartilage cells which make up the epiphyseal cartilage at the ends of the bony shaft The cells come to be arranged in parallel rows at the cartilage shaft junction and as they mature such cells grow larger and larger It is assumed that the lowermost ones die, thus becoming ready for invasion by capillaries from the shaft Coincident with these changes in the cartilage cells, lime salts are deposited in the matrix substance between them The tissue is thus transformed into a sort of honeycomb into which the capillaries grow The blood vessels are accompanied by osteoblasts which deposit the organic portion of bone osteoid on the spicules of calcified cartilaginous matrix Simultaneously inorganic salts of calcium and phosphorus are deposited in this organic matrix Bone, therefore is composed of an organic protein of collagenous-like material and inorganic salts Bone deposited in this fashion at the cartilage shaft junction is soon destroyed in order to lighten the structure So too the shaft is continuously remodeled and growth in width keeps pace with growth in length as a result of new formation on the outer surface of the cortex and destruction along the inner margins In the human bone growth is most active during infancy After 2 to 3 years of age growth of the cartilage slows down tremendously, remodeling sequences are likewise reduced in the shaft However it must be clearly understood that even in the adult bone is not a static or 'dead'

although it has obvious limitations, has been very useful in studies of bone physiology. Broadly speaking, when the product of calcium and phosphate is under 30, lime salts will fail to be deposited, above 40, they will be laid down in normal fashion. The importance of the concentrations of calcium and phosphorus has been amply demonstrated *in vitro*, for when slabs of bone from rachitic rats are placed in solutions containing optimum concentrations



FIGURE 29 Normal bone. The cartilage shaft junction of a rib from an older child, an eight-year-old white female. Note that there are fewer trabeculae at the cartilage shaft junction and those which persist are short and squat. The zone of proliferative cartilage cells is narrower than that in Figure 27. Fat is partially replacing myeloid elements in the marrow spaces. A comparison of this bone with that of the six months-old child shown in Figure 27 should bring out the reasons why certain of the nutritional diseases of bone are not seen in the older child: that is when growth becomes so slow. H. and E. $\times 15$

of calcium and phosphorus, lime salts are deposited in the rachitic cartilage (367-368) but when the calcium and phosphorus contents are not optimal, these salts do not deposit.

A local factor must also be invoked to explain the deposition of lime salts in bone since their concentrations in plasma will not account for chemical precipitation. The following theory proposed by Gutman is current at this writing (369-370). It is well known that there is an abundance of glycogen in mature proliferating cartilage cells (371). A phosphorylase has been demonstrated in epiphyseal cartilage which appears to transform this glyco-

entirely settled as yet. Based in the main on x-ray crystal diffraction studies, bone has been likened to a salt of the apatite series, composed of crystals in lattice arrangement on which the other inorganic compounds are adsorbed. The most widely held hypothesis at present is that calcium and phosphate ions combine, due to factors to be discussed below, to form CaHPO_4 and that this is transformed into $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$. The other constituents are then

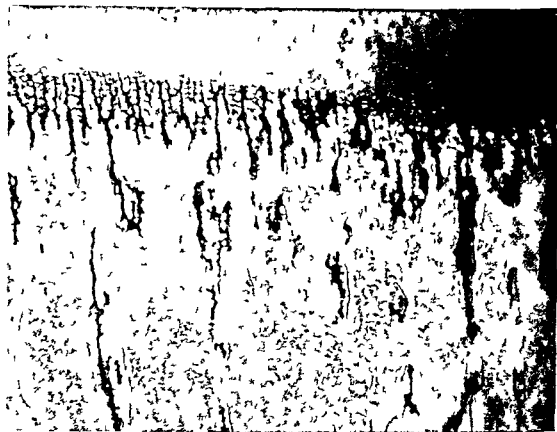


FIGURE 28 Normal Bone. Higher power of same section shown in Figure 27. The arrangement of the cartilage cells is more clearly seen. So too the calcified matrix material and the deposition of bone upon it are more readily appreciated than in the lower power. H and L $\times 60$.

adsorbed on this framework. The final formula is usually written, $\text{Ca}_3\lambda_n(\text{PO}_4)_2$, where λ represents the various acidic radicals, mainly CO_3 , and n is 2 or 3 (365).

Although the histogenesis of bone is clear enough and its composition is also fairly well established, the chemistry of bone formation has yet to be completely elucidated and is unique in that it does not appear to obey any of the rules of physical chemistry. The biochemistry of bone salt deposition is thought to be governed by two main factors, general and local. The first deals with the concentrations of calcium and phosphorus in the blood plasma, a concept which was first elucidated by Howland and Kramer (366) and

counterpart of rickets osteoblastic activity is not affected unless the organism is suffering from inanition or some intercurrent disease. Therefore as one would expect, osteoid which is the organic matrix of bone is deposited upon pre-existing bony trabeculae in normal fashion. However since general and perhaps local factors are not propitious calcium and phosphate salts are not



FIGURE 30 Shaft of Rib. Moderate Rickets. This is the shaft of the same section shown in Figure 37 and shows several trabeculae which are coated by broad zones of osteoid which stands out as a paler tissue than the bone which it encases. Note that the width of this coating of osteoid about a given trabecula is not uniform in thickness. H and E. $\times 60$

deposited in this osteoid. It will be recalled that ordinarily the deposition of inorganic salts occurs virtually simultaneously with the deposition of osteoid; in rickets, however, deposition of lime salts is either retarded or completely lacking. In the usual tissue sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin, osteoid may be recognized as a band of light pink-staining material of varying width which coats portions of the cortex and trabeculae of the shaft. In such histological preparations bone usually has a bluish-gray tint. The contrast between bone and osteoid may be accentuated if more elegant techniques are used such as that of McLean and Bloom (364) who employ undecalcified sections stained with silver nitrate. When studying any bone

gen to glucose-1-phosphate, which ester is then transformed by a phosphoglucomutase into glucose-6-phosphate. The latter, together with some of the glucose-1-phosphate is then broken down by a phosphatase (372) which can be demonstrated to be present by histochemical techniques. The increase in local concentration of inorganic phosphate which is thus produced leads to a precipitation of calcium phosphate or a similar compound in the cartilaginous matrix substance. It must be stressed that this mechanism can only function in one of two ways to produce a sudden outpouring of phosphate which will lead to a large excess at a given moment or to furnish energy which may be necessary to pull calcium and phosphorus too from the blood stream. Hydrogen ion concentration may also be a factor although the methods which have been employed to study this such as dyes (373) and quinhydrone electrode (374) give no definite confirmation. With the latter method which is not claimed to represent the true hydrogen ion concentration, average values of 7.35 for resting normal cartilage and 7.39 for proliferating cartilage have been obtained. It should be pointed out that this local theory tends to explain the deposition of lime salts at the cartilage shaft junction, the mechanism in the shaft is more obscure.

Pathological Effects Manifestations of vitamin D deficiency and/or associated deficiencies in calcium and/or phosphorus occur endemically or have been produced experimentally in a large variety of Mammalia. It is not necessary to mention all the various species which have been studied since Goldblatt's review (375) may be consulted. The common laboratory animal used for the investigation of experimental rickets is of course the rat. In the discussion which follows we shall draw upon the literature (345, 376-377, 378-379) as well as our own observations (115) of rickets in the rat and in particular, a large series of children aged from birth to fourteen years coming to autopsy at the Johns Hopkins Hospital. This latter material has been studied in association with Dr. E. A. Park and Miss Deborah Jackson.

The manifestations of vitamin D deficiency or rickets are found only in the bones and teeth. Changes which occur in other tissues are entirely secondary to alterations in the former structures.

Bones The morphological criteria of rickets are found in the bony shaft as well as at the cartilage-shaft junction. The degree of change which will be encountered in the latter site is dependent on the rate of growth of the bone which is especially dependent on the age of the organism. The changes which occur in the shaft are straightforward and will be discussed first. In the normal growth of the trabeculae and cortex constant remodeling sequences are taking place in the shaft. Trabeculae are being continually destroyed and rebuilt likewise the cortex particularly when growth in diameter is taking place, is destroyed along its inner margin and built up along its external surface. In rickets and in osteomalacia which is the adult

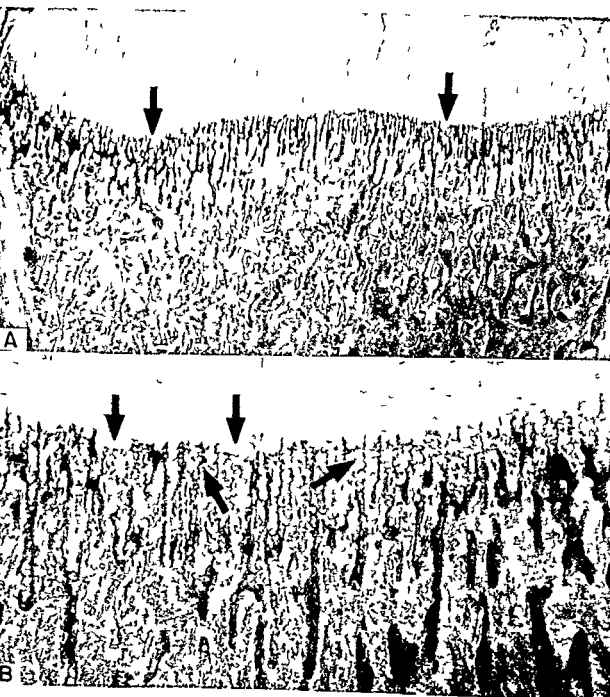


FIGURE 31 Costo chondral Junction Early Rickets *A* Cartilage shaft junction from a six months-old white female dying of staphylococcal sepsis. The line of ossification is even and regular. The only change which one can detect under this power is a diminution in the amount of lime salt deposition in the cartilaginous matrix. Definite defects can be made out at arrows H and E, $\times 15$. *B* Higher magnification ($\times 60$) of same section shown in *A*. The defects in calcification are more clearly shown. There is no apparent excess of osteoid although deeper in the shaft osteoid is present in greater quantities than normal. Note also that the spicules of calcified matrix are beginning to buckle under the strain of weight bearing, (arrows). Compare with the normal in Figure 28 page 108.

one should always examine the shaft to ascertain whether osteoid is present in abnormal amounts. One must, of course, bear in mind that the amount of normal or physiological osteoid varies depending upon the age and the species from which the specimen is derived. In the normal growing rat, for instance, osteoid is virtually never seen. In the new-born infant, especially the premature baby, osteoid is usually present and is especially prominent along the inner margins of the cortex. Osteoid is not ordinarily encountered in older children (after 2 years) and in adults, if present in these, it denotes rickets or osteomalacia. In rickets and osteomalacia osteoid borders of uniform thickness do not cover each and every trabecula, on the contrary the deposition of osteoid is usually irregular and is doubtless related to mechanical stress and strains. The absence of osteoid does not connote that rickets is not present, changes at the cartilage shaft junction may be recognized in certain instances in which osteoblastic activity in the shaft is so reduced as by wasting disease for instance that little or no osteoid is deposited.

Changes at the cartilage shaft junction in rickets may be epitomized as follows: 1) failure of lime salts to be deposited in the cartilaginous matrix material, and 2) failure of cartilage cells to undergo degeneration so that capillaries are unable to penetrate the cartilage except in a very irregular fashion.

In normal growth of the cartilage plate on the shaft, the cartilage cells multiply and those nearest the diaphysis arrange themselves in rows with the largest and most adult cells nearest the capillaries advancing from the shaft. Lime salts are deposited in the cartilaginous matrix substance between the rows of hypertrophic cartilage cells, this deposit seems to guide the ingrowth of capillaries into the holes left by the degenerating cartilage cells. Osteoblasts then form osteoid on these spicules of calcified matrix. In rickets the initial change at the cartilage shaft junction is failure of lime salts to be deposited in the cartilaginous matrix substance. Such defects are exhibited in sections by an absence of deep blue-staining material (calcium salts) between the rows of cartilage cells. The extent of such defects is dependent upon the severity of the metabolic disorder.

Coincident with this defective lime salt deposition the zone of mature cartilage cells begins to increase in width which is interpreted to mean that such cells are more resistant to destruction than normal. The reason for this is not clear but may be a local result of vitamin D deficiency or may be related to the disturbance in blood calcium and phosphorus relationships. More likely, however, it is dependent on mechanical factors accompanying the lack of support usually supplied by the calcified matrix substance for there is compression and swelling of the cartilage cells nearest the shaft which may prevent the ingrowth of capillaries. In any event the cartilage ceases to be invaded or is destroyed in a very irregular fashion.

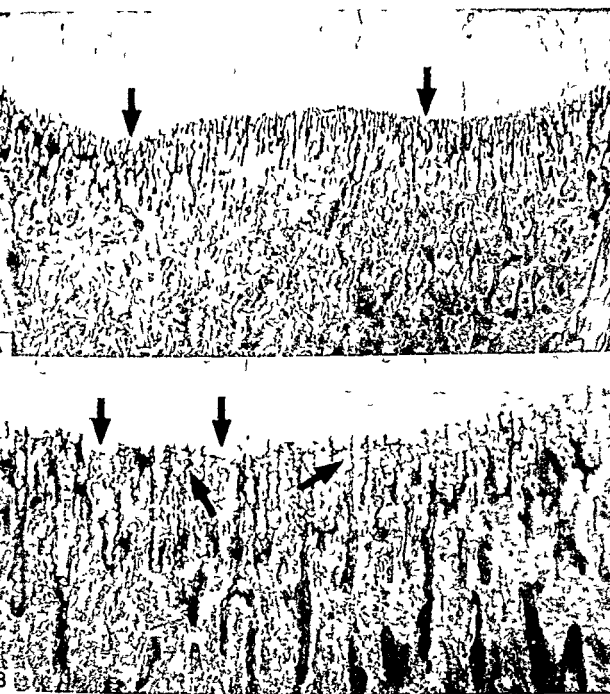


FIGURE 31 Costochondral Junction Early Rickets *A* Cartilage shaft junction from a six months old white female dying of staphylococcal sepsis. The line of ossification is even and regular. The only change which one can detect under this power is a diminution in the amount of lime salt deposition in the cartilaginous matrix. Definite defects can be made out at arrows H and E $\times 15$. *B* Higher magnification ($\times 60$) of same section shown in *A*. The defects in calcification are more clearly shown. There is no apparent excess of osteoid although deeper in the shaft osteoid is present in greater quantities than normal. Note also that the spicules of calcified matrix are beginning to buckle under the strain of weight bearing (arrows). Compare with the normal in Figure 78 page 108.

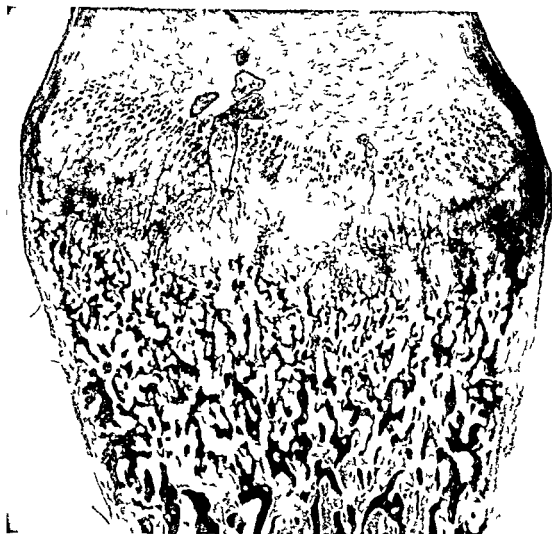


FIGURE 37 Rib Moderate Rickets Costochondral junction from a seven month-old colored male dying acutely in three days of lobular pneumonia. Note increase in width of cartilage shaft junction. Especially prominent is the increase in width of zone of proliferative cartilage cells and irregularities in the calcification of this region. Note also tongues of cartilage projecting down toward the shaft surrounded on either side by invading vessels. The trabeculae beneath the cartilage are more numerous than usual. There is a great deal of osteoid on such trabeculae; this is shown in Figure 30 which is a higher power of this section. H and E $\times 15$.

When the disease has progressed for a time, the histological picture is characterized by a broad zone between the multiplying cartilage cells and the shaft the so-called rachitic metaphysis. This is composed of tongues of cartilage which extend down toward the shaft and which are separated from one another by collections of capillaries or vascular bushes. In other words at some point blood vessels have been able to penetrate the cartilage while in other situations due perhaps to compression of cartilage or differences in lime salt deposition capillaries find it impossible to erode the cartilage. In addition this zone contains trabeculae made up of uncalcified cartilage matrix upon which osteoid is being deposited. These of course result from

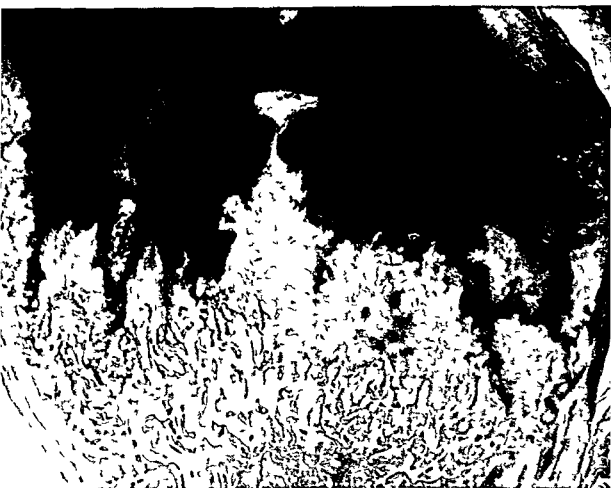


FIGURE 3. Rib. Severe Rickets. Costochondral junction from a seven months old colored male dying of unexplained fever and diarrhea. He had been sick for one month. There is extreme swelling in the region of the cartilage shaft junction. Note as in Figure 2, the increase in width of the zone of mature cartilage cells and the irregularities in calcification. There is complete disorganization in this region due to collapse of the cartilage and trabeculae many of which are composed of osteoid. H and E, $\times 15$.

groups of cartilage cells being cut off by capillaries and then coated with osteoid doubtless an attempt to strengthen this region. The rachitic metaphysis manifests itself clinically as a swelling or beading of the ribs or increase in width of the ends of the long bones of the extremities.

When therapy is instituted repair occurs, the initial change at the cartilage shaft junction is the deposition of lime salts in the cartilage adjacent to the rachitic metaphysis. Lime salts are also deposited in various parts of the swollen cartilage shaft junction and in the shaft which finally results in calcification of these portions. The entire area is ultimately remodeled. Deformities of course, in the form of bending of the long bones may exist for life. It is of interest that there is some evidence in rats that the rachitic pattern as evidenced by x-ray diffraction studies remains for some time and may never be completely eradicated (383).



FIGURE 34 Rib Healing Rickets. Costochondral junction from a 19 months-old white baby dying of a lung abscess and empyema after being sick for six weeks. There is little if any swelling at the cartilage shaft junction. The only evidence of healing rickets is found in the cartilage. The zone of hypertrophic proliferative cells is increased in width. More striking however is the presence of a line of dark staining material in the cartilage above the cartilage shaft junction. This zone is composed of calcified cartilaginous material and represents a resumption of the deposition of lime salts at the place where they should have been laid down had rickets not been present. H and E. $\times 15$

Teeth Changes in the teeth in rickets are less complex than those occurring in bones mainly for the reason that the former are never resorbed. When young rats are placed on a rachitogenic diet (high calcium, low phosphorus, no vitamin D), the first and most prominent change is in the incisors where a line of disturbed calcification appears in the dentine, this has been called the 'calciotraumatic line' (380). It is found in the dentine and represents the first response of the organism to the effects of the rachitogenic regimen. Almost immediately too, there is a retardation in the formation of predentine together with a pronounced disturbance in the calcification of all the dentine which is formed, this material is not homogeneously basophilic but is stippled by an irregular deposition of calcium salts. Calcification of the cementum is likewise retarded. The changes in the molars are similar but not of such a severe degree. Although there are cystic alterations in the enamel organ before it undergoes atrophy, no other abnormalities in this structure can be detected. There is no enamel hypoplasia in rats although

in the guinea pig severe hypoplasia of the enamel has been reported (382) when these animals are placed on a low calcium-high phosphorus diet containing no vitamin D. Thus in experimental animals there does not appear to be entire agreement, though it will be noted the calcium and phosphorus concentrations of the diet were reversed and this may explain the presence or absence of enamel hypoplasia. Pointed studies on the teeth using diets of known composition while changing the calcium and phosphorus ratios and total concentrations as employed by Shohl (377) in the study of bone are certainly needed.

As might be expected, the bony supporting structures of the teeth show characteristic changes similar to those of the bones just described above. Wide osteoid borders are found on the trabeculae of the alveolar bone (381).

Rickets in the Human Since the metabolism of calcium, phosphorus, and vitamin D are so closely related the heading of this section is Rickets rather than Vitamin D Deficiency. It is obvious that the manifestations of rickets in the skeleton may be produced by a deficiency of calcium, phosphorus or vitamin D singly or together. Students of nutrition seem to be agreed that calcium deficiency is prevalent in childhood and adolescence. Inasmuch as the geographical incidence of rickets still seems to prevail, it is apparent that adequate amounts of vitamin D are not ingested as well. In a given case of rickets however it is usually difficult to determine which of many factors was the forerunner of the metabolic disturbances which culminated in the abnormal changes in the skeleton.

The use of clinical and x-ray evidence in determining the incidence of rickets in the population at large is not satisfactory, nor is the biological estimation of vitamin D in the blood practically feasible (389), such data are much inferior to in histological examination of the skeleton. A study of the latter type was carried out by Schmorr during the years 1901-1908 in Dresden (384). Rickets was found to be present in 61 percent of all children dying during the third month of life, in 94 to 98 percent during the fourth to eighteenth months, and in 91 per cent from the nineteenth month to the beginning of the third year. A similar investigation has been made of all children dying in the Johns Hopkins Hospital during the period 1928-1942. Pathological criteria of rickets were found in 48.4 percent of a group of children aged 3 to 19 months (385). In the age group 2 to 14 years microscopic evidence of rickets was present in 46.5 percent (386). Inasmuch as moderate and severe rickets was found in many children dying of acute disease it is valid to infer that at the latter age "rickets is of frequent occurrence in healthy appearing children." Conclusions should be withheld until similar histologic studies are made in other parts of the United States and the world in order to assess the distribution of rickets and correlate its incidence with dietary and geographical factors. The clinical aspects of rickets will not be



FIGURE 34 Rib Healing Rickets Costochondral junction from a 19 months-old white baby dying of a lung abscess and empyema after being sick for six weeks. There is little if any swelling at the cartilage shaft junction. The only evidence of healing rickets is found in the cartilage. The zone of hypertrophic proliferative cells is increased in width. More striking however is the presence of a line of dark staining material in the cartilage above the cartilage shaft junction. This zone is composed of calcified cartilaginous material and represents a resumption of the deposition of lime salts at the place where they should have been laid down had rickets not been present. H and E $\times 15$

Teeth Changes in the teeth in rickets are less complex than those occurring in bones mainly for the reason that the former are never resorbed. When young rats are placed on a rachitogenic diet (high calcium, low phosphorus, no vitamin D), the first and most prominent change is in the incisors where a line of disturbed calcification appears in the dentine, this has been called the 'calciotraumatic line' (380). It is found in the dentine and represents the first response of the organism to the effects of the rachitogenic regimen. Almost immediately, too, there is a retardation in the formation of predentine together with a pronounced disturbance in the calcification of all the dentine which is formed, this material is not homogeneously basophilic but is stippled by an irregular deposition of calcium salts. Calcification of the cementum is likewise retarded. The changes in the molars are similar but not of such a severe degree. Although there are cystic alterations in the enamel organ before it undergoes atrophy, no other abnormalities in this structure can be detected. There is no enamel hypoplasia in rats although

disease. Non-dietary osteomalacia may be encountered in this country at autopsy, for instance, the present writer has found widened seams of osteoid along the trabeculae of the vertebra in about half of a group of adults dying of chronic renal insufficiency (388). Such changes are, of course, partially explained by the deranged calcium and phosphorus metabolism which occurs in chronic nephritis.

The relation of calcium phosphorus and vitamin D to the structure of the human tooth and to dental caries in particular is not too clearly understood. So many factors, such as carbohydrate, mouth flora, fluoride to name only a few, play a role in the production of caries that the effects of the 3 nutrients cited above and especially vitamin D seem almost impossible to determine. Inasmuch as this book deals primarily with pathological effects produced by deficiencies of single nutrients and since the subject of dental caries is so controversial it seems unwise to enter a field in which there is so much disagreement. When such is the case it is evident that the data are sufficient not to convince but to confuse everyone.

Vitamin E

(Alpha-tocopherol and its Homologs)

Historical In 1922, Evans and Bishop (390) reported the existence of a new dietary factor which was found to be necessary in order to insure normal reproduction in rats, this 'X' factor was considered to be distinct from the then known vitamins A, B, and C. Mattill et al. (391) soon showed that testicular degeneration occurred in rats whose diets were deficient in this material. A third important manifestation of vitamin E deficiency (as the factor had by then been named) was reported by Evans and Burr (392) in 1928 when the development of paralysis in young rats of mothers on vitamin E depleted diets was described. Ten years passed before Olcott (393) showed that this 'paralysis' was not neurogenic in origin as had been thought but was due to necrosis of striated muscle fibers.

During the period in which morphological changes in vitamin E deficient animals were being studied, work was pushed on the identification of an active principle. In 1936 Evans and his group (394) announced the isolation of certain alcohols from wheat-germ oil, one of which had strong vitamin E-like properties. This alcohol was named alpha-tocopherol (tokos = child-birth phero = to carry). Soon after Karrer and his associates (395) succeeded in synthesizing a biologically active product.

Biochemical Relationships Very early in the studies of the chemical prop-

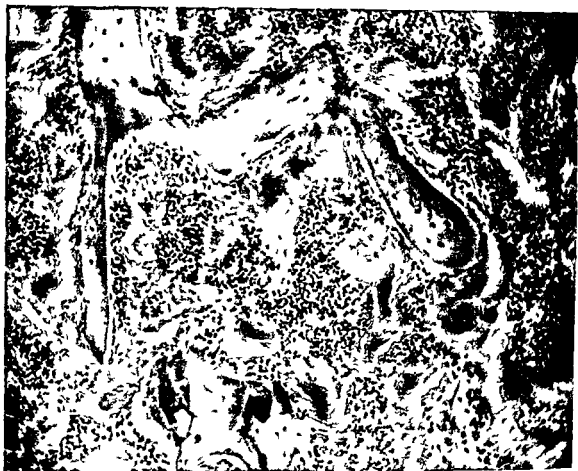


FIGURE 35 Shaft of Rib Rickets. This is a section from a 12 year-old colored girl dying of acute meningococcal meningitis. It is reproduced to show the bands of osteoid which are the only evidence of rickets to appear in the bone at this age since growth at the cartilage shaft junction has almost completely ceased. Note as in Figure 30 the osteoid is irregularly distributed over the bony trabeculae. H and E $\times 60$.

discussed here, its pathological manifestations in man were taken up in the preceding section. The final outcome of these pathological changes is a variety of skeletal deformities: genu varum and genu valgum, enlargement of the ends of the long bones, kyphosis deformity of the pelvis and deformity of the thorax. The latter may be severe enough to lead to respiratory embarrassment (116).

Osteomalacia is the adult counterpart of rickets. Although there have been no pointed studies of the prevalence of osteomalacia in this country, it is likely that this disease as a purely nutritional one is uncommon. In China, however, osteomalacia is said to be extremely prevalent although evidence for its incidence rests mainly upon clinical rather than pathological criteria. Such cases, which usually occur in child-bearing women, are due to inadequate dietaries and insufficient sunlight. Inasmuch as osteomalacia which has been described in North China (387) has a rather peculiar geographical distribution, one wonders whether any other factors might condition the

accompanied by poor development of the blood islands. In addition irregular development of the liver is prominent together with an absence of blood cells in the heart and large vessels. By the twelfth day the deficient embryo is a full day behind its control in development and on the thirteenth day death of the organism is apparent at which time the tissues become macerated.

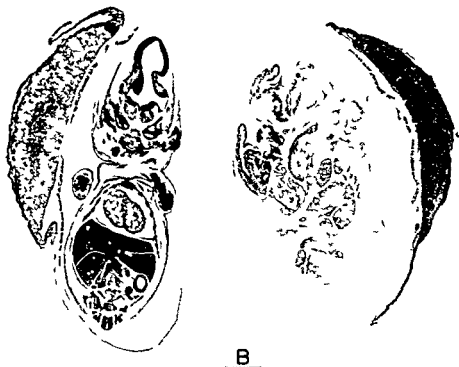


FIGURE 36 Reproduction Vitamin E Deficiency. Two fetuses removed from females at the sixteenth day of pregnancy. *A* from a normal and *B* from a vitamin E deficient female at the same gestation period. The placenta of the latter is a little smaller than that of the normal. In addition it is obvious that the fetus in *B* is dead and is undergoing extensive autolytic changes. Note the differences in the color of the liver, heart and cerebral tissues $\times 6$. (Courtesy of Dr. Karl E. Mason.)

and are resorbed. Studies of the placenta indicate a marked retardation and an underdevelopment of vascular invasion by the fetal vessels. Evans et al. (402) have attempted to explain the reproductive failure on a starvation and asphyxia theory. Fetal nutrition is interfered with because of poor connections between fetal and maternal tissues and those nutrients which reach the embryo, especially oxygen, do not obtain proper distribution because of inadequate hematopoiesis. Whether such an hypothesis is tenable remains to be settled by further investigation since Mason (406) has postulated a physiological or morphologic defect of the fetal blood vessels as the primary cause of the pathogenesis of the changes observed. The young of female animals given borderline doses of vitamin E may show marked dilata-

erties of vitamin L it was recognized that the active principle had strong antioxidant properties. As a result of studies of the oxidation of fat tissue the metabolism of muscle and the destruction of other nutrients *in vivo* current theories of the mode of action of alpha-tocopherol places its role as an antioxidant in the foreground.

The body fat of rats which are raised on a diet deficient in alpha-tocopherol is very susceptible to oxidation (396), when the missing factor is administered body fat is stabilized and oxidation does not take place. The relationship of alpha-tocopherol to muscle metabolism *in vitro* will be discussed in detail below. It has been suggested that alpha-tocopherol "acts as a brake on the oxidative mechanism primarily of skeletal muscle and in its absence these oxidative processes in muscle run riot" (397). Studies of the interrelation of vitamin A and alpha-tocopherol have shown that the inclusion of the latter in a diet containing vitamin A prevents the destruction of vitamin A in the gastrointestinal tract (398). Somewhat similar experiments demonstrate that other fats such as cod liver oil destroy alpha-tocopherol and thus produce the pathological lesions characteristic of vitamin L deficiency (399).

Alpha-tocopherol is apparently absorbed like the other fat-soluble vitamins. The importance of normal intestinal secretions particularly bile in absorption has been demonstrated in dogs with biliary fistulas (400). Alpha-tocopherol is not distributed in rat tissues as its fat-soluble properties might indicate. For instance rather high concentrations may be demonstrated in heart, spleen and lung although these tissues contain relatively little fat (401).

Pathological Effects. Alpha-tocopherol is necessary for the development of the embryo for the integrity of the male germinal epithelium and for the maintenance of the metabolism of striated muscle *in vitro* and structure *in vivo*.

The indispensability of this vitamin in the reproductive process has been demonstrated in rats (402-403), mice (404) and guinea pigs (405). Evans and his co-workers (402) have studied this phase extensively in the first species where changes are found in the embryo and its membranes. Ovulation, the estrous cycle as well as ovarian and uterine tissues are all normal save for the presence of pigment which will be discussed below. Female animals mate normally, no microscopic evidence of damage to the ovum or its membranes can be detected until the middle portion of pregnancy, that is at the time of implantation. The earliest evidences of any untoward effects are found during the eighth day when an ectodermal cavity fails to appear. Further evidence of deranged development occurs during the following days. The ectoplacental and amniotic cavities fail to form as a result of inadequate growth of ectoderm and there is retarded development of fetal mesoderm.

changes with liquifaction of chromatin and segregation of this material to form crescents at one side of this structure. Changes in the cell membrane are postulated since such cells coalesce to form large characteristic multinucleated masses. During this period degeneration of the primary spermatocytes and spermatogonia is observed. Although some of the Sertoli cells degenerate for the most part these cells are not particularly damaged. The end result is a structure where tubules are atrophic and lined only by Sertoli syncytium. It is of great interest that if one testis of a vitamin E deficient rat is removed fairly early in the deficiency and examined it may appear perfectly normal under the microscope. Nevertheless, even though more than adequate amounts of the missing nutrient are administered, the changes described in the end-stage above are found in the opposite one many days later. In other words irreversible injury takes place even before it can be detected morphologically. This of course is quite different from what occurs in vitamin A deficiency and inanition where repair can always be obtained (408).

It is now known that the 'nutritional muscular dystrophy' of rabbits and guinea pigs, which Goettsch and Pappenheimer (411) described in 1931, is due to a deficiency of alpha-tocopherol (412). Lesions have been adequately described in the skeletal musculature of the rabbit (411) guinea pig (412) young rat (413) and mouse (414).

Biochemical changes which will shortly be referred to occur in the muscle before any morphological criteria of damage appear (415). The initial histological abnormality consists of swelling and hyalinization of the muscle fiber which then becomes necrotic. Sometimes there is an increase in the fluid content of the interstitial spaces and such fluid occasionally contains enough protein to be stained by the usual procedures. Leukocytic infiltration has been described as a prominent feature and there is marked proliferation of the sarcolemma nuclei. An increase in fat globules likewise appears together with globules of a peculiar golden pigment, which will be discussed more fully below. Many of the necrotic muscle fibers are infiltrated with calcium salts, which may be identified by appropriate stains. Following the administration of alpha-tocopherol there is prompt regeneration of the damaged muscle fibers and an ultimate return of the tissue to its normal appearance in the rabbit and guinea pig. Muscle lesions in the rat do not respond well to therapy. Accompanying the degeneration of muscle fibers a disappearance in motor end plates has been demonstrated in the rat (417). The number of nerve endings returns to normal following repair of the dystrophic alterations. Adequate data on the behavior of sensory endings are not available.

As might be expected profound disturbances in the chemical composition and physiology of the muscle fibers accompany these morphological altera-

tion of the blood vessels and extensive hemorrhage into the tissues. This is followed by death of the latter elements. Mason suggests that the paucity of blood islands and cells upon which Evans places so much emphasis are secondary to loss into the dilated vascular channels.

Degeneration of the male germinal epithelium has been described in the rat

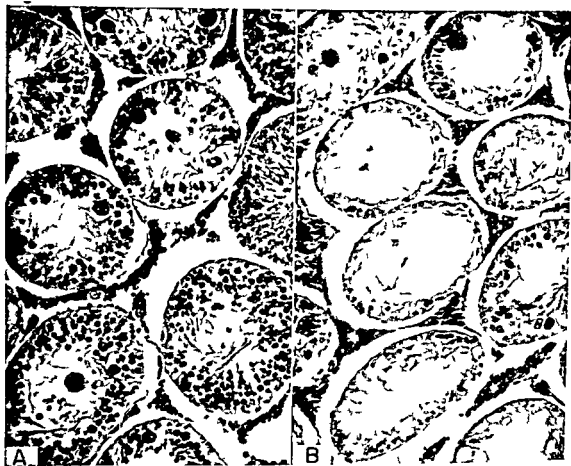


FIGURE 37 Testis Vitamin E Deficiency. *A* and *B* Various stages in the development of testicular atrophy in animals placed on a vitamin E deficient diet. Compare with Figure 1*A*. There is an increasing diminution in the cells lining the tubules together with the appearance of characteristic giant cells which are especially prominent in *A*. There is a decrease and virtual absence of spermatozoa, spermatids and in some spermatocytes. In *B* the same giant cells are seen but there is a further reduction in the number of germinal elements so that in several of the tubules only the Sertoli syncytial cells remain. Eosin methylene blue stain $\times 150$ (Courtesy of Dr. Karl E. Mason.)

(407, 408), and guinea pig (409) but not in the rabbit (410) or mouse (404) although muscular lesions occur in these species. Mason (407) divides the sequence of events in the rat into several stages as follows: after fifty to one hundred days on the deficient diet there is chromatolysis and fusion of the mature spermatozoa, the debris then finds its way into the epididymis. Following the disappearance of spermatozoa the spermatids assume a vesicular form and disintegrate. Next the spermatocytes show peculiar nuclear

(418) In rabbits an increase in fat, phospholipid and cholesterol concentrations have been observed in the skeletal muscles and in addition there is an increase in the blood cholesterol levels (419) The creatine content of muscle is found to be reduced (420) and there is an increase in the excretion of this substance in the urine, so that the course of the syndrome and the response of the animal to therapy may be followed by studies of creatine excretion.

By far the most interesting biochemical change in the muscle tissues of alphatocopherol depleted animals is a marked *in vitro* disturbance in respiration. Increases in oxygen consumption of two hundred to four hundred percent were first described by Victor (421). The more recent studies of Houchin (397, 422, 423) have furthered our knowledge of the metabolic phenomena. The increase in QO₂ has been confirmed as well as the decrease in creatine content and high chloride concentration which have been described by others. In the striated muscle from deficient animals of various species the oxygen consumption is as follows: hamster, 240-250 percent of normal, rabbit 220 percent of normal, nursing rat, 160 percent of normal, grown rat 125 percent of normal. Following the oral administration of alpha-tocopherol to deficient hamsters the QO₂ falls to normal levels in as short a time as twenty-two hours. Studies of biopsied muscle tissues from depleted rabbits to which alpha-tocopherol phosphate had been given intravenously indicates that there is a drop in the QO₂ of 34 percent in the first hour and 49 percent more in the next three hours.

In vitro observations of dystrophic muscle slices from rabbits and hamsters show that the addition of alpha-tocopherol to the medium lowers the QO₂ by 40 percent. Muscle slices from normal animals are not so affected. The succinoxidase activity of dystrophic hamster muscle is found to increase 160 percent above normal. Addition of alpha-tocopherol to the medium decreases the succinate activity toward normal. In view of these *in vitro* studies of muscle metabolism it is unfortunate that the data are so inadequate with regard to the total metabolism of the organism. When a group of vitamin E deficient rats is compared with a similar group which had secured alpha-tocopherol on the 15th day of life the total oxygen consumption of the litter animals is lower. Unfortunately however there were no very marked differences between the former group and stockfed controls (415). This is a subject requiring further investigation.

Pappenheimer and Goettsch (424) made the interesting observation that complete denervation of an extremity prevents the development of muscular lesions in that limb. The reason for this is not clear whether the abolition of motor or sensory or sympathetic impulses or all is responsible has yet to be determined.

In rats which had been on a deficient diet for over twelve months necrosis of cardiac muscle fibers followed by fibrosis has been observed by Mason

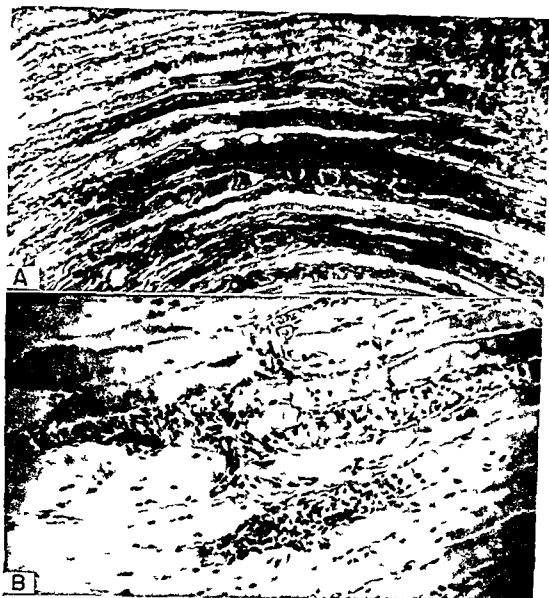


FIGURE 58 Striated Muscle Vitamin E Deficiency. *A* Muscle from rabbit showing destruction of fibers with cellular infiltration and proliferation of sarcolemma nuclei. In several places there are fat vacuoles. H and E $\times 130$. *B* Hamster showing similar changes with destruction of muscle fibers and cellular infiltration. In addition though not showing well in this photomicrograph there are macrophages filled with the acid fast pigment ceroid $\times 150$ (Courtesy of Dr Karl E. Mason)

tions, in fact increased oxygen consumption of the muscle tissue occurs *in vitro* before any histological lesions can be demonstrated (415). In the rabbit (416) the potassium and magnesium contents of the muscle are found to be decreased while the concentrations of sodium and chloride are increased the former out of proportion to the latter. The muscle content of calcium and phosphorus is increased in animals which show histological evidence of calcification. In rats an increase in acid soluble phosphorus compounds and a reduction in the phosphorylation of glycogen has been noted

animals. Small globules of pigment are found in the uterine muscle fibers of ovary, interstitial cells of the testis, lymph nodes spleen, fat, macrophages of the liver, bone marrow, lung, kidney, as well as voluntary and cardiac muscle. The pigment is acid-fast and apparently first accumulates in the uterine muscle. It is readily taken up by macrophages, but these cells do not appear capable of digesting it. Tocopherol treatment seems to arrest pigment production, but does not appreciably increase its rate of disappearance. When 20 percent cod liver oil is incorporated in the diet of vitamin E-deficient rats, an intense brown discoloration of the adipose tissue appears and microscopic examination reveals even more pigment in the tissues mentioned above with particularly large accumulations in the fat (430). The pigment produced by vitamin E deficiency alone which is intensified by adding cod liver oil to the deficient diet resembles "ceroid" (page 000) in many respects.

The yellow color of the rat's incisor is of course familiar to all who have worked with this species. The pigment which contains iron is said not to be a porphyrin or lipochrome but perhaps a melanin-like material and is apparently deposited by the ameloblasts (429). The fat and vitamin E content of experimental rations have been shown to affect the pigmentation of this tooth. When animals are maintained on diets devoid of fat and vitamin E, normal pigmentation occurs, however when twenty percent lard or cod liver oil are added to the ration the yellow color fails to appear. The active portion of these two fats is apparently in the highly unsaturated fraction (431-432).

Several groups of investigators have described extensive lesions in the nervous tissues of vitamin E deficient animals. Wolf and Pappenheimer (433) have critically reviewed this work and concluded from their own experimental material that 'lesions of the central nervous system did not occur in vitamin E-deficient rats at any age'. It is of some interest, however, that changes in the lipid content of the brain have been reported in vitamin E-deficient rats. The total lipid and cholesterol concentrations are increased, the free cholesterol portion is said to be elevated (427).

In Summary, vitamin E deficiency leads to disturbances in reproduction irreversible testicular changes and dystrophy of both striated and cardiac muscles.

Vitamin E Deficiency in Man. Vitamin E has been used in a large number of rather unrelated clinical syndromes without any clear-cut results. At this time there is no evidence for the occurrence of vitamin E deficiency in man or any indication for its use in clinical medicine.

and Emmel (425) In such animals ceroid (page 195) is found in the myocardial fibers and in macrophages in the interstitial tissues There is evidence of destruction of myocardial fibers but this seems to be a very slow process The most conspicuous change is the presence of a great deal of connective tissue separating the myocardial fibers, ceroid-laden macrophages are found

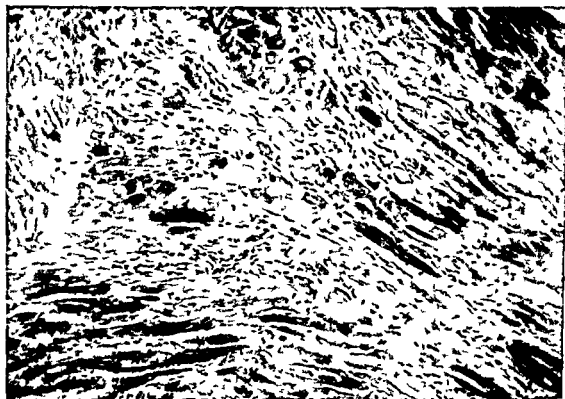


FIGURE 39 Heart Vitamin E Deficiency Myocardium of rat on a vitamin E deficient diet for over a year showing extensive scarring and disappearance of myocardial fibers There is in addition some cellular infiltration many of the cells are macrophages containing ceroid pigment There is no evidence of any fresh necrosis of myocardial fibers $\times 150$ (Courtesy of Dr Karl E Mason)

here This is the sole recorded observation of lesions in the cardiac musculature produced by vitamin E deficiency Physiological studies indicate that the deficient rabbit heart is less resistant to posterior pituitary extract but more resistant to such cardiac glucosides as ouabain and digitoxin (426) In contrast to changes in skeletal muscle no alterations in the lipid or cholesterol content of vitamin E-deficient cardiac musculature have been observed (427)

Attention has also been called to lesions of the kidneys in vitamin E deficient rats (773), the nature of the change needs clarification Necrosis of the tubular epithelium has been described this becomes more marked as the deficient state progresses

Mason and Emmel (425, 428) have carefully studied a curious pigmentation on which a number of investigators have noticed in vitamin E-deficient

ished clotting power of the blood is the complete explanation of the bleeding because it requires the assumption that in ordinary activity, with attendant traumatization the clotting mechanism is constantly being called into action in normal individuals.

In the rat hemorrhages occur in numerous sites most commonly in the subcutaneous tissues of the lower extremities. Bleeding is also seen in the thymus which may be greatly distended by red cells bladder, eye adrenal, testis kidney retroperitoneal tissues and the various cavities (443). Another interesting study in the rat has described the presence of multiple hemorrhages in the brain and the possibility that the altered physico chemical properties of the blood mainly hypoprothrombinemia which may interfere with the proper hydrodynamics of the blood circulation might affect structurally the blood vessels' (767).

A most interesting observation in pregnant rabbits has been reported by Moore et al (444) who find that animals which are fed a vitamin K deficient diet consistently abort during the early stages of pregnancy (8-14 days after mating). Microscopic examination reveals the presence of fresh and old hemorrhage in the decidua plates of such animals.

Vitamin K Deficiency in Man Clinical hypoprothrombinemia with its resulting hemorrhagic manifestations is observed in patients with obstructive jaundice diarrhea sprue et cetera and is too familiar to warrant much consideration here. Vitamin K has been very effective therapeutically.

The vitamin has also been used to combat the hypoprothrombinemia which is observed in the new-born. As numerous investigators have demonstrated there is a rapid fall in the prothrombin content of plasma at birth. In addition there is virtually no vitamin K in the new-born infant during the first week of life. The placenta is not permeable to vitamin K after delivery the prothrombin derived from maternal sources is soon used up. Following a certain period usually about a week vitamin K begins to be elaborated by the intestinal flora the blood prothrombin level therefore rises (445). It is thus apparent that vitamin K therapy will materially affect the prothrombin levels and bleeding tendencies of new-born infants.

Data from the Johns Hopkins Hospital (446) indicate that in those mothers who do not receive vitamin K antenatally 4.1 percent stillbirths or neonatal deaths occur while in the mothers receiving 2 methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone the incidence is only 1.5 percent. This as well as other reports on the efficacy of vitamin K therapy in reducing infant mortality have been questioned however. Potter (447) in the largest series of new-born infants to be reported has presented evidence which indicates that the mortality rate is not altered by the routine administration of vitamin K to women during labor. At the present time the efficacy of vitamin K before and during delivery needs to be clarified. It seems logical however that vitamin K should

Vitamin K

Historical In 1929 Dim described a hemorrhagic syndrome in chicks which had been placed on a diet virtually free from sterols (434). The bleeding tendency was not prevented by ascorbic acid, the cause was ascribed to 'a lack of a factor or factors occurring in cereals' (435). In 1935 the same investigator presented evidence that the factor was a vitamin which he designated vitamin K ('Koagulations-Vitamin') (436). During the next few years several laboratories carried out extensive investigations of the active factors which led to an elucidation of the chemical nature and finally the synthesis of a relatively large group of compounds of which 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone (Menadiolone) is most active (437).

Biochemical Relationships The function of vitamin K in the animal organism is related to the formation of prothrombin. 2-methyl-1,4-naphthoquinone and its related compounds are fat soluble. Their absorption is enhanced by bile acids since animals in which biliary fistulae have been produced and humans with obstruction of the biliary tract develop hypoprothrombinemia which may be corrected by feeding bile salts (438). That the liver is the site of prothrombin formation has been shown, for in hepatectomized dogs large amounts of vitamin K fail to affect the plasma prothrombin level (439). More precise data on the role of vitamin K in the mechanism of prothrombin formation awaits further elucidation. Quick's (440) separation of prothrombin into two components A and B which are combined through calcium is a step in this direction since evidence already accumulated indicates that in vitamin K deficiency there is inadequate synthesis of the B component.

The relationship of vitamin K to the anticoagulant factor of 'sweet clover disease' 3,3-methylenebis (4-hydroxycoumarin) or dicoumarol deserves mention (442). Various compounds having vitamin K activity are effective in counteracting this anticoagulant in rats: the lives of animals fed doses of dicoumarol which are ordinarily toxic are prolonged when diets containing vitamin K are employed (442).

Pathological Effects Vitamin K deficiency, as evidenced by reduction of blood prothrombin level has been demonstrated in several species (438, 443, 444).

Aside from the physiological defect associated with severe hemorrhage no other changes have been detected in the tissues of vitamin K deficient animals. The possible relationship of prothrombin deficiency to capillary integrity is of great theoretical interest and should be studied further. As Wolbach and Bessey (317) have pointed out one wonders 'if the d num-

A large number of rather miscellaneous effects have been ascribed to ascorbic acid, in the main these have been based on experimental observations in deficient guinea pigs. It is difficult to interpret and classify such observations so that they can be linked with the pathological manifestations which will shortly be described. However certain experimental findings are important and should be mentioned. One of the most interesting functions of ascorbic acid appears to be its relation to the metabolism of the aromatic amino acids phenylalanine and tyrosine. Both ascorbic acid-deficient guinea pigs (454) and premature infants reared solely on cow's milk (455) excrete parahydroxyphenylacetic and parahydroxyphenylpyruvic acids in the urine when large amounts of phenylalanine and tyrosine are fed. Such hydroxyacids are ordinarily metabolized and not found in the urine. This metabolic defect is eliminated when adequate amounts of ascorbic acid are restored to the diet. *In vitro* studies in guinea pigs indicate that the main difficulty of vitamin C deficient tissues is an inability to oxidize the side chain of tyrosine rather than a failure to oxidize the benzene ring or conjugate the phenolic group (456).

Other metabolic defects have been observed in vitamin C deficient animals. Decrease in the succinic dehydrogenase activity of heart and skeletal muscle has been reported (457) as well as a rise in blood fibrinogen (458) and a decrease in serum phosphatase activity in infants (512) and guinea pigs (459) but not the adult human however (481).

The outstanding investigations of Friedenwald and his associates (460) have implicated ascorbic acid in yet another important physiological process the secretion of intraocular fluid. The vitamin is one of a group of reducing substances which are stored in the stroma of the ciliary body. When ascorbic acid is restricted by dietary means the content of this substance in the eye falls rapidly so that after twenty-four to forty-eight hours no reducing substance can be titrated in the aqueous. There is a coincident decrease in the secretion of the intraocular fluid. Friedenwald postulates that the secretion of the aqueous is dependent on differences in oxidation-reduction potential between the ciliary stroma and its epithelium. Ascorbic acid thus acts as a "moderator in a redox chain connecting the oxidase activity of the epithelium with the dehydrogenase activity of the stroma." In this way water is transferred across the epithelial-stroma barrier.

A relationship may exist between vitamin C and the production of adrenal cortical hormone which would be of interest in view of the extremely large concentrations of ascorbic acid in the adrenal gland. When pituitary corticotropic hormone is injected into rats and guinea pigs there is a decrease in ascorbic acid concentration of the adrenals, for instance, in the former species the concentration may fall from 314 mg per 100 gm fresh tissue to 141 mg six hours after adrenotrophic hormone is injected (461). In guinea

always be administered to the mother antenatally or to the newborn after birth to tide the infant over the first week of life until vitamin K synthesis begins in the intestinal tract

Ascorbic Acid

Historical The familiar observations of Lind during the eighteenth century plainly indicated that citrus fruit juices contain a substance which protects against scurvy. Although active preparations were isolated during the early part of this century, it was not until 1932 that King and Waugh (448) announced the chemical nature of vitamin C and demonstrated the biological activity of their product which was soon synthesized, its structure was then determined to be that of an hexose derivative (449, 450)

Biochemical Relationships Ascorbic acid is absorbed from the intestinal tract and widely distributed by the blood stream to the tissues. Certain organs have higher concentrations than others, a point which has been brought out by chemical analyses as well as by histochemical methods. By the former technique ascorbic acid is found in greatest quantities in the adrenal glands. In the guinea pig concentrations average 75 mg per gram. The vitamin C content of other representative tissues from the same animal have been reported as follows (in mg per gram): liver, 0.10, brain 0.14, kidney, 0.087, heart, 0.088, skeletal muscle, 0.032, testes 0.18 (451). Studies of the distribution of the vitamin by histochemical methods confirm the chemical analyses and aid in a more precise localization of ascorbic acid in cells and tissues. In histochemistry advantage is taken of the fact that ascorbic acid reduces silver nitrate with the deposition of silver at the site where the vitamin was present. Fine intracellular granules are prominent in the adrenals, corpus luteum, interstitial cells of the testis and in the hypophysis (452).

Ascorbic acid furnishes one of the outstanding examples of the importance of species differences with respect to the effect of vitamin deficiencies. Vitamin C deficiency may be produced in the guinea pig, monkey and man, the mouse, rat, rabbit and dog do not need an exogenous source of this substance. The action of ascorbic acid may be blocked in the first two species of the latter group for Woolley (453) has shown that a 'scurvy-like condition' may be produced in cotton rats and in mice by feeding an homolog of ascorbic acid, glucoascorbic acid. In mice for instance, cutaneous hemorrhages are prominent and bleeding from the gingivae is noteworthy. "the knees and wrists swell and on section the joints are firey red". It is unfortunate that histological studies have not been made to determine whether the lesions in the bones are characteristic of the scorbutic state.

fibroblasts and the absence of collagen formation certain other differences in the capacity of wounds to heal in scorbutic and normal animals should be mentioned. The hemorrhage which occurs as a result of the incision is absorbed much more slowly and may never completely disappear. Then too although endothelial cells proliferate capillary loops fail to invade the injured area.

These histological observations have been extended by others to obtain data on the ascorbic acid content and tensile strength of healing wounds in

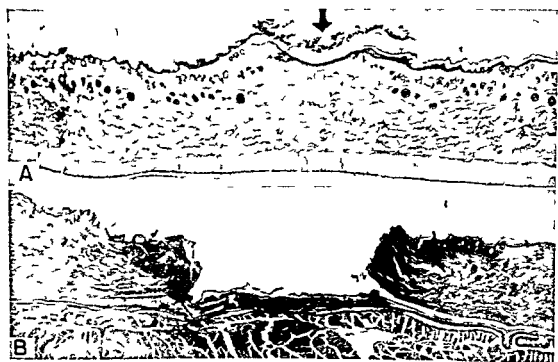


FIGURE 40. Skin. Ascorbic Acid Deficiency. *A* Skin from back of normal guinea pig in which an incision had been made nine days before at point marked by arrow. Note absence of hair follicles and increased thickness of epithelium to which some debris is adherent. The wound is completely healed. *B* Skin from a guinea pig suffering from acute scorbutus in which a similar incision had been made nine days before. There is no attempt at healing whatsoever and as will be seen a wide defect is present. H and E, $\times 6$.

normal and scorbutic guinea pigs and in humans as well (466-790). The vitamin C content of healing wounds of deficient animals is found as expected to be much lower than that of animals on an adequate intake of this nutrient. However there is no increase in concentration of ascorbic acid in the wound site of the deficient guinea pig over the concentrations in the skin elsewhere. If air is injected into the peritoneal cavity and the pressure measured until the abdominal wound breaks down the average pressure for wound rupture in scorbutic animals is found to be 127 mm. mercury while in controls it is twice as great or about 258 mm. mercury. In a clinical

pigs the same decreases are noted which indicate the possible relation of ascorbic acid to cortical hormone production

Pathological Effects Numerous experiments have demonstrated that the principal morphological effects of ascorbic acid deficiency are found in mesenchymal tissues. In the absence of this vitamin intercellular substances such as collagen, osteoid and dentine, fail to be deposited in normal fashion by their respective cells, fibroblasts, osteoblasts and odontoblasts. There is also said to be a general failure in the deposition of 'intercellular cement substance'. Rupture of capillaries in particular is a prominent manifestation of the scorbutic state. Less specific effects on other soft tissues will be discussed below.

Collagen The role of ascorbic acid in the formation of collagen has been studied from several standpoints, valuable information having been obtained from investigations of healing sterile wounds, blood clots and subcutaneous abscesses. In the former type of experiment the now classical studies of Wolbach and Howe (462) conclusively demonstrate that when incisions are made in the skin of scorbutic animals the lesions fail to heal. Microscopic examination of such wounds reveals that although there is extensive fibroblastic proliferation in both scorbutic animals and controls the cells of the former tend to remain immature looking and most important of all fail to deposit collagen in normal fashion. From such observations it is concluded that there is failure of collagen formation in the scorbutic state. Further studies by Wolbach (463) and others (464-466, 466) have confirmed and amplified the initial observation both in the guinea pig and in man. In wounds produced in scorbutic animals a pink-staining fluid like material appears about immature proliferating connective tissue cells. This substance has been postulated to be a variety of materials but the feeling of most students of scurvy, particularly Wolbach, is that this material represents an ineffectual attempt at collagen formation. In controlled studies of the recovery processes following absolute scorbutus Wolbach has failed to obtain any evidence that fibrin is a precursor of collagen (463). Instead the homogeneous pinkish-staining material mentioned above which does not take collagen or silver stains becomes fibrillated after treatment with ascorbic acid; such fibrillary material is argyrophilic. Following the appearance of these reticulum fibers collagen can also be stained. Wolbach takes the view that reticulum and collagen are elaborated or secreted by connective tissue cells. Particularly important is the observation that following recovery from the scorbutic state collagen deposition is always found in the immediate vicinity of the fibroblastic cells. A discussion of the theory which has been brought forward to explain these phenomena will be deferred until the lesions in the bones and teeth have been described. In addition to the changes in

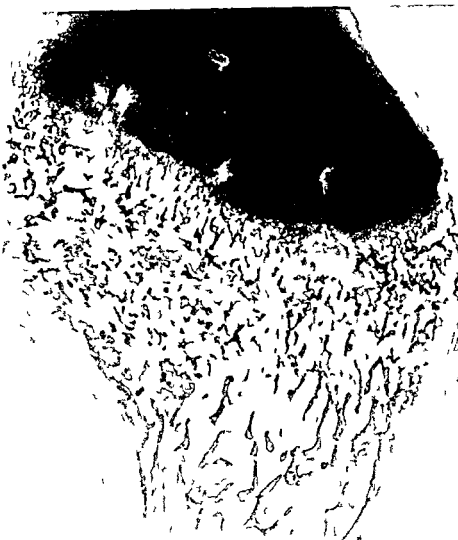


FIGURE 41 Rib Scurvy Costochondral junction from a six months-old white female infant dying acutely of diarrhea and dehydration Scurvy was diagnosed grossly at autopsy Note widening of cartilage shaft junction and extreme concave deformity of shaft and convexity of the epiphyseal cartilage Spicules of calcified cartilage matrix lie in complete disarray in marrow composed of immature looking fibroblasts Some evidence of attempts at healing can be made out under higher magnification This illustrates the tremendous destructive effects which the movements of respiration have on this area of structural weakness The cartilage reminds one of a pestle grinding away in the mortar like shaft Note absence of hematopoietic elements in this region H and E $\times 15$

on this lime salt matrix and is immediately converted into bone by the deposition of inorganic calcium and phosphorus in it The scorbutic state is characterized by failure of intercellular substances to be elaborated Osteoid, the organic matrix of bone like collagen and dentine is an intercellular substance In scurvy there is a failure of the osteoblasts to form osteoid The entire pathologic picture is thus explained and if this single point is understood the morphologic changes should be clear enough

ing study of six cases of wound healing in the human some correlation has also been detected in the vitamin C concentration of the tissues and their tensile strengths (790)

The histological development of subcutaneous abscesses has been compared in scorbutic and normal guinea pigs, in which the paired-feeding technique was utilized (467). When such animals are inoculated with a strain of hemolytic staphylococcus aureus, microscopically in the first few days there is a prompt outpouring of polymorphonuclear leukocytes in both groups of animals and phagocytosis appears to be active. By the third day there tend to be fewer macrophages in and about the lesion of the deficient animals in contrast to large numbers in the controls, there is also little connective tissue proliferation in the former group. A week following inoculation the lesion is localized in the deficient animal, but there is a wide zone of connective tissue cells about the necrotic focus, between the cells is a pinkish-staining material and numerous red blood cells are also present. No capillaries are found growing into the center of the lesion, instead 'defective looking' dilated vessels are found at the periphery. A week later the zone about the abscess is even wider in the deficient animal in contrast to the compact well-encapsulated lesion of the control. From this study it is concluded that although there is no decrease in polymorphonuclear leukocyte response, the macrophage reaction is delayed and is less than that encountered in the control. Phagocytosis by the mononuclears also appears abnormal. As was expected there is also an inability of the scorbutic animal to produce collagen and organize his abscess. Grossly, therefore, the lesion in the deficient animals is diffuse and soft in comparison to that in the controls which is rounded up and firm. It is interesting to speculate on the role of blood vessels in relation to the lesion and its pathogenesis. Whether defective capillary invasion retards the influx of macrophages is difficult to determine. It seems unlikely, however, that poor circulation has any effect on poor collagen formation.

Bone Changes in the bones especially those of the guinea pig and growing infant have been reported by a number of investigators since Barlow's (468) description in 1882 (469, 462, 470, 471). The description to follow is based on a study of experimental scurvy in guinea pigs (472) as well as over one hundred cases of human scurvy which have been observed by the present writer and in collaboration with Dr. E. A. Park and Miss Deborah Jelson.

It will be recalled from the discussion of normal osteogenesis on page 106 that growth of the long bones including the ribs takes place by a continuous multiplication and piling up of the cartilage cells which form the epiphyseal plates. A continual deposition of lime salts in the matrix substance in the interstices of these cells occurs. Osteoid tissue is then deposited



FIGURE 45. High power of costo chondral junction of rib shown in preceding figure 42. Note numerous fractures with spicules of calcified cartilaginous matrix material scattered in all directions. Although there is an abundance of fibroblast like cells they seem quite impotent of forming collagen or osteoid. Changes in the cartilage such as defects in calcification and irregularity in lining up of the cells are due to mechanical factors. H. and E., $\times 60$.

of this zone which determines the resultant pathologic picture. It must already be obvious that such spicules of calcified matrix material, unencased in bone and unresistant to the stresses and strains of motion and weight bearing, are especially liable to fracture. The changes which accompany such breaks lead to the characteristic lesions of scurvy in the skeleton.

The first site of the appearance of fractures is usually at the periphery of the bone where the cortex and the cartilage are in juxtaposition. This is probably because there is more displacement here and more pull from attached muscles. As the lattice increases in width a more and more fragile zone is developed so that it is inevitable that complete fracture of the spicules of lattice will occur and that separation and various deformities of the cartilage shift junction will soon follow. Such fractures of the calcified



FIGURE 47 Rib Scurvy. Costochondral junction from a six months old colored female infant who died of dysentery after an illness of only eight days. The child had never received any orange juice. Scurvy was diagnosed clinically and at the autopsy table. There is widening of the line of ossification with the characteristic concavity of the shaft. Numerous fractures are seen and the region beneath the cartilage is in great disorder. (H. and L., 15)

As the scorbutic state develops the cartilage cells of the epiphyseal plate continue to proliferate and arrange themselves in rows in normal fashion. So too, lime salts are deposited in the cartilaginous matrix substance between the columns of cartilage cells. However, the next step in the orderly sequence of bone growth is deficient or completely lacking—osteoblasts fail to lay down osteoid on the spicules of calcified matrix material. In addition this material is not destroyed. Consequently a wide zone of calcified but unossified matrix develops just beneath the actively growing cartilaginous plate. This formation Parfitt (471) has aptly called the 'scurbutic lattice' since it is a "lattice" of calcified cartilaginous matrix material. It is the development

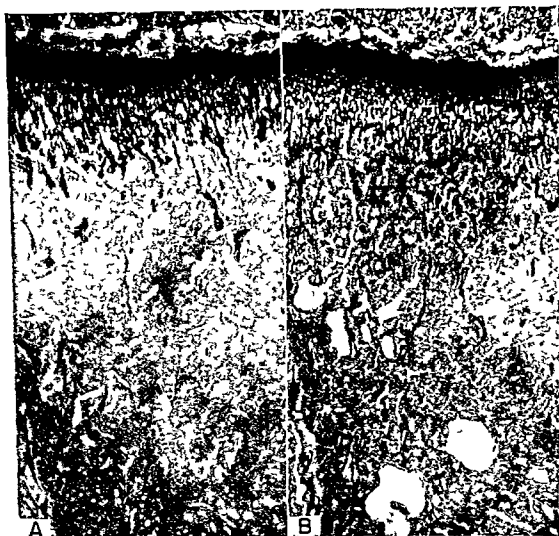


FIGURE 45 Tibia Experimental Scurvy in the Guinea Pig *A* Tibia from guinea pig completely deprived of vitamin C. The picture is similar to that seen in the human save perhaps that the lattice of calcified cartilaginous matrix material is a little broader. There are the same fractures and the connective tissue framework with absence of myeloid elements *B* Tibia of opposite leg which had been placed in a plaster cast to immobilize it at the beginning of the experiment. Notice prominent lattice which shows no fractures. There is no migration of the marrow cells down into the shaft nor is there any evident proliferation of fibroblastic cells. This illustrates that if the normal stresses and strains of muscle pull are eliminated classical evidence of scurvy with fractures hemorrhages, et cetera will not develop.

called 'Gerustmark.' The reason for this migration of marrow cells which leaves only connective tissue elements is not clear.

From what has been said it is apparent that the fractures presence of pink-staining material hemorrhage and cellular proliferation are dependent on the development of a structurally inferior zone just beneath the epiphyseal cartilaginous plate. That the stresses and strains resulting from muscle pull and motion are responsible for these classical signs of scurvy at the growing

matrix material lead to the classic textbook picture of scurvy, the so called "Trummerfeldzone" or region of complete disintegration. Here beneath the cartilage are found spicules of calcified matrix in considerable disarray lying horizontally and in various other directions. About the fractures and in the clefts there is a pinkish-staining hyaline material. There are large numbers

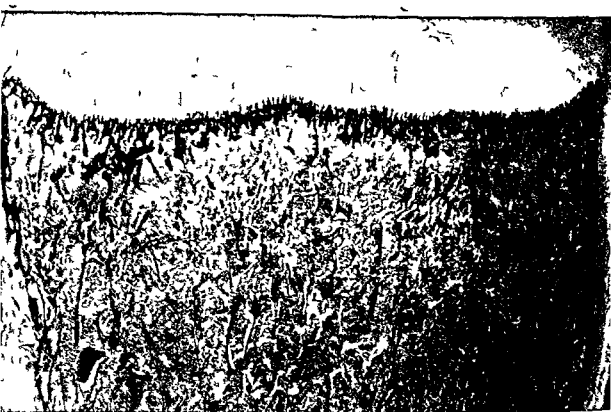


FIGURE 44 Rib Healed Scurvy. Costo-chondral junction from a seven months old white male infant who died as a result of diarrhea and dehydration. This is a purely accidental finding at autopsy and was not suspected until the bone was studied microscopically. There is evidence of old fractures which now are completely healed. The presence of such localized areas of fractures make the diagnosis of healed scurvy a certainty. The line of ossification is perhaps a little irregular but otherwise the bone shows nothing. H and E, $\times 15$.

of red blood cells as well as quantities of apparently impotent osteoblasts cells resembling fibroblasts but without any vestige of collagen or reticulum in their vicinity. Macrophages containing hemosiderin are also seen. Such is the picture of absolute scorbutus in the guinea pig.

Absolute scurvy in the human is apparently very rare, one therefore usually encounters some evidence of healing. Osteoid and bone are laid down about some of the fractures, the amount of healing varies from case to case, depending no doubt on the degree of the deficiency state. Beneath the Trummerfeldzone is an area where there are no hematopoietic cells and which is composed of a marrow made up of connective tissue cells, the so-

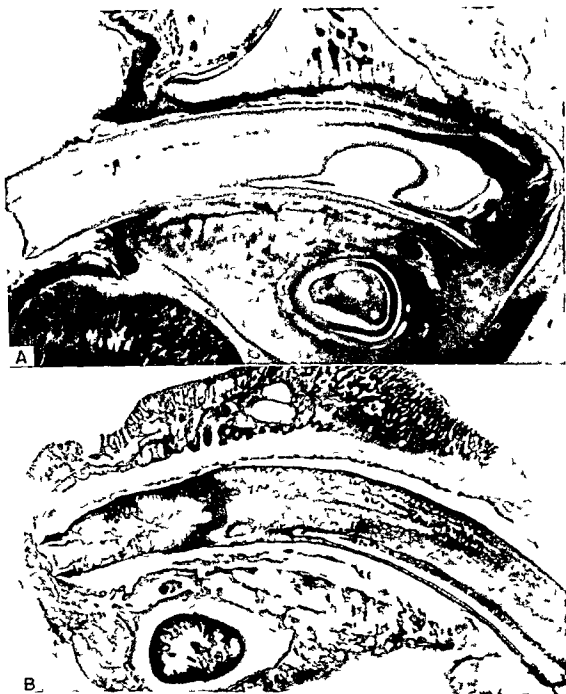


FIGURE 46 *A* Mandible of guinea pig cutting the first molar longitudinally and the lower incisor transversely. Acute scurvy. There is complete cessation of dentin formation with an atrophic pulp lightly attached to the dentin formed before the deficiency became complete. *B* Chronic scurvy. This shows imperfect osteodentin formation. The periodontal membrane is approximately twice the normal width. (Courtesy of Dr Paul E. Boyle.)

ends of the bone has been shown by the present writer in experiments on guinea pigs (472). One hind leg is immobilized by placing it in a plaster cast, and the animal is then placed on a scorbutic diet. When, after a suitable period, the two hind legs are examined histologically, the following differences are found. At the cartilage shaft junction of the immobilized tibia there is a broad zone of calcified lattice. There are no fractures, no hemorrhage, no pink-staining material, no proliferation of fibroblastic or osteoblastic-like cells, nor is there any migration of the marrow cells down into the shaft. In contrast the tibia of the opposite side exhibits the classical picture of scurvy with all of the positive findings. Such an experiment shows that with the exception of a prominent lattice of calcified matrix material, all of the time honored criteria of scurvy are secondary to the effects of mechanical force on this *locus minoris resistentiae*. However, we have been hesitant to make the diagnosis of scurvy in children in the absence of the fractures Gerustmarl and Trummerfeld zone.

Certain other features of the skeletal manifestations of scurvy should be mentioned. Changes take place in the cartilage of the human but are probably a result of mechanical displacement of the cartilage on the shaft. Such alterations consist of a spreading or separation of the cartilage cell columns consequent to the deformities of the costochondral junction. Wolbach has commented on unpublished experiments in guinea pigs in which the epiphyseal cartilage becomes defective 'due to a loss of firmness of the matrix' (317). More detailed information is necessary on this point.

Other characteristics of scurvy in the skeleton are rarification of the shaft as a result of resorption. This too is a phase of the pathology of the disease which requires further study. Subperiosteal hemorrhages develop as a result of trauma and normal stress and strain. Macrophages filled with hemosiderin pigment may be prominent following such subperiosteal hemorrhages, those at the cartilage shaft junction have already been mentioned.

Teeth and Supporting Structures Histological studies of dental and periodontal structures have been reported in guinea pigs and man. Changes in the former species are much more extensive, probably, because the growth of the guinea pig's incisor is so rapid. Two millimeters are erupted on an average each week in comparison to only a few millimeters a year in the human (473).

As would be expected the most marked alterations in the teeth are found in the dentine. Wolbach and his associates (474, 475, 476, 477) have studied the pathogenesis of the changes extensively. When guinea pigs are placed on a scorbutic diet alterations very soon appear in the odontoblasts, these cells become atrophic and soon resemble the nearby pulp cells. They lose their orderly polar arrangement and become completely disorganized. The vessels of the pulp become dilated and red blood cells ooze through. As a re-

studies, he concludes that ascorbic acid is not the decisive factor in maintaining the cohesiveness of sheaths of epithelial cells, and that "the intercellular cement upon which this cohesion depends must therefore be of a different order from the interstitial matrices, which Wolbach and others have found depend on the presence of ascorbic acid for their elaboration" It should further be pointed out that in the bone of a scorbutic guinea pig which was first placed in a plaster cast to eliminate stresses and strains, no pink-staining material appears but is only found where there have been fractures of the calcified cartilaginous matrix lattice (472) Studies of healing in such bones have not been performed and should be carried out in order to determine whether the changes similar to those described by Wolbach in organizing blood clot can be observed At the present time the "jellation theory" is an interesting one, but we would prefer to withhold final judgment and await further evidence

Certain other tissues have been mentioned as the sites of lesions in ascorbic acid deficiency Focal necroses of the myocardium have been reported in scorbutic guinea pigs (478) In view of these findings it is of interest to recall that the succinic dehydrogenase activity of heart muscle is decreased in scorbutic guinea pigs (457) It would be of interest to study some of the other enzyme systems in the cardiac musculature of vitamin C deficient animals When trypan blue is injected subcutaneously into normal and scorbutic guinea pigs more of the dye is found in the liver and renal tubular cells of the latter animals (480) The findings has been interpreted to indicate a pathological change in the parenchyma of the two organs studied Anemia does not appear to occur in vitamin C deficient guinea pigs (785)

Ascorbic Acid Deficiency in Man A discussion of vitamin C deficiency in man can best be divided into scurvy in the infant and young child and scurvy in the adult organism Criteria upon which to base the clinical diagnosis of scurvy in children are few, and the disease must be well advanced before signs are at all significant Chemical load tests have been employed (482) but have usually not been correlated with the clinical signs and x-ray data One is therefore at almost a complete loss to estimate the incidence of scurvy in the general childhood population During the decade 1936-45, 41 cases of clinically manifest scurvy were observed in every 100-000 out patient visits to the Children's Hospital in Boston This was in contrast to an incidence of 58 cases for the preceding 10 years During the period 1940-45 an increase occurred however (781) Data based on morphological criteria furnish more precise information on certain selected portions of the population that is an hospital population For instance when the bones of all children coming to autopsy in the Johns Hopkins Hospital were studied during more than a decade unmistakable evidence of scurvy was found in 11.7 percent of 487 children between the ages of 3 and 19

sult of the changes in the odontoblasts, dentine is laid down irregularly and the dental tubules are arranged in haphazard fashion. Dentine deposition soon stops entirely. The predentine becomes hypercalcified. A few of the odontoblasts in the pulp apparently form some dentine, at least enough to enclose themselves. The alizarin technique has been employed to demonstrate that dentine formation is quantitatively related to ascorbic acid intake (476).

In the guinea pig changes in the enamel organ come later in the course of the deficiency. The ameloblasts atrophy and hemorrhages are encountered. Both these alterations have been interpreted to be due to traumatic injury of the enamel organ as a result of poor support. There is no evidence of any relationship between ascorbic acid deficiency and dental caries. There is rarification of the alveolar bone, as might be expected when one recalls the changes encountered in the ribs and other bones of experimental animals and humans. Weakness of the supporting bones as well as weakness of the collagen fiber supporting apparatus allows for great mobility and decreased ability to withstand the mechanical stresses encountered in chewing. The changes in the supporting structures of the guinea pig have been likened to the diffuse alveolar bone atrophy of pyorrhea encountered in the human (475).

There is a good deal of controversy among students of scurvy on the mechanism of collagen and bone formation. Wolbach (463) favors the view that collagen material originates as an amorphous ground substance secreted by fibroblasts. He feels that he has shown this in the organization of blood clot in animals which are recovering from absolute scurvy. Then too, evidence is presented that the pinkish-staining material which is found in the Gerustmark of scorbutic bone has "as its basis a product of the cells of the Gerustmark, probably liquid added to by other materials from the blood plasma or cartilage matrix resorption." Such is the basis of the "jellation theory," which postulates that the scorbutic cells deposit a pinkish staining fluid material, which in the absence of vitamin C fails to jell or in other words fails to become osteoid or collagen. The only pointed studies which have been performed are those of Wolbach who adheres to this concept or theory "that the failure of cells to produce intercellular substances in scorbutus is due to the absence of an agent common to all supporting tissues which is responsible for setting or jelling of a liquid product."

Though not contradicting the conclusions of Wolbach with respect to collagen, dentine and osteoid, Chambers (770) has taken issue on the question of intercellular cement substances. As noted elsewhere (page 25) Chambers feels that calcium is an important factor in the formation of intercellular cement which binds epithelial cells together. From tissue culture

gums appeared. At the present time based on experimental studies and other observations the feeling is that, few if any cases of gingivitis and bleeding gums result from ascorbic acid deficiency when oral hygiene is maintained. In view of the changes of the guinea pig teeth (475), referred to above it is of interest that one of the manifestations which appeared in the human experiment was interruptions in the human dura, which "presumably results from atrophy of alveolar bones and is replaced with collagen-free fibrous tissue" (465).

There has been much written concerning the anemia of human vitamin C deficiency. The consensus of opinion appears that Vitamin C deficiency anemia does not occur *per se* and that when a reduction of red blood cells and hemoglobin is found this is due to a deficiency of other nutrients (785).

Thiamine

Historical Modern knowledge of thiamine began with the classical studies of Eijkman who demonstrated in 1897 the nutritive value of rice polishings in pigeons fed a diet of polished rice (485). In 1911, Funk isolated from rice polishings a crystalline fraction with biological activity (486). During the following quarter of a century, similar extracts of increasing potency were prepared and used in the treatment of beriberi. In 1936 Williams and his associates were able to announce the structural formula and synthesis of a pure and biologically active substance (487) which since it contained sulfur was called thiamine.

During the years preceding the synthesis of thiamine, a coenzyme, cocarboxylase which was isolated from yeast, had been extensively studied. In 1937 when Lohmann and Schuster showed that this material was the pyrophosphoric ester of thiamine the biological role of thiamine became apparent (488). Thiamine pyrophosphate (cocarboxylase) or diphosphothiamine is made up of a pyrimidine and a thiazole ring plus phosphoric acid.

Biochemical Relationships Ingested thiamine is mainly phosphorylated by the liver and to a lesser extent by the kidney. Very little free thiamine occurs in normal tissue, the major portion is found as thiamine pyrophosphate (489). The organism excretes thiamine in phosphorylated form. *In vitro* studies have demonstrated dephosphorylation by liver, kidney, muscle and brain tissue (490).

In 1936 Peters called attention to "the biochemical lesion" of thiamine deficiency by showing that when the vitamin was added to suspensions of brain tissue from deficient pigeons the pyruvate content of the mixture was

months (385) The majority of such cases was not diagnosed clinically or, if skeletal lesions were noted, the lesions were usually called rickets Similar studies in other localities are much to be desired The pathology of the osseous changes in scurvy in infants has been detailed above Although a variety of other manifestations have been described, evidence for the specificity of such lesions is not at all clear In view of the morphological and physiological changes in the myocardium referred to above, it is of interest that sudden death has been noted in three infants, 7½, 10, and 11 months of age respectively, all of whom had advanced scurvy of the skeletal tissues two of these children had right sided cardiac hypertrophy at autopsy and no other changes were found to account for death (479) As was noted in a preceding section, changes similar to those encountered in guinea pigs have not been observed in the teeth of the human The tooth germ of two infants aged 8 and 11 months respectively, whose bones showed the characteristic changes of scurvy have been carefully studied but no alterations were found in the ameloblasts or odontoblasts and their intercellular substances enamel and dentine (473) In the younger infant hemorrhages and cysts were observed in the enamel organ No such changes were encountered in the older child Growth of the human tooth is undoubtedly too slow for any dental changes to manifest themselves

Scurvy in adults has of course been described for several hundred years Pathological studies however, have not been carried out on many cases coming to autopsy Following the last war Aschoff (484) described a series of scorbutics pointing out the subperiosteal hemorrhages changes at the cartilage shift junction and suggestive cardiac involvement Much more information on the pathogenesis of scurvy in the human has come from studies of experimental scurvy of which there have been several reports (465, 481) Crandon's experiment upon himself furnishes extremely interesting data on the biochemical and pathological changes which occur as the scorbutic state develops The plasma ascorbic acid level fell to zero after 41 days on the diet The white cell-platelet ascorbic acid concentration fell to zero after about the 12th week of the deficiency No other significant findings were present until 134 days had elapsed At this time small perifollicular hyperkeratotic papules began to appear Such lesions resembled those previously described as characteristic of vitamin A deficiency (323) After three months a wound which was made in the skin and subcutaneous tissues was found to heal in normal fashion At the end of 182 days after the white cell-platelet ascorbic acid had been at zero for 61 days histological examination of a second wound showed virtually no healing and gave evidence that scurvy based on morphological grounds was present Few other specific changes were found Since so much has been written of the role of ascorbic acid in the etiology of gingivitis in the human it is of interest that no lesions of the

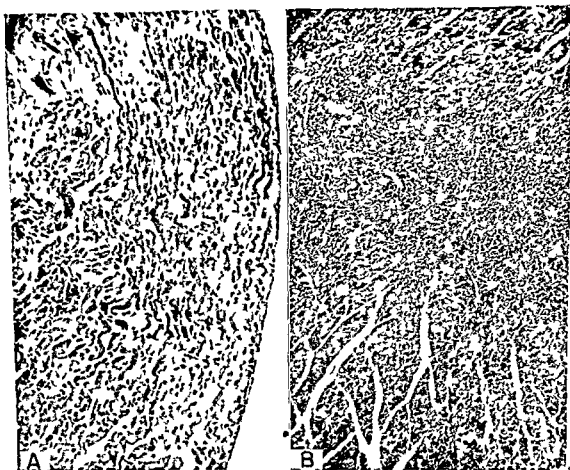


FIGURE 47 Heart Thiamine Deficiency (506) *A* Auricular myocardium of a pig which died suddenly after having been on a thiamine deficient diet for 37 days. Note diffuse infiltration with leukocytes many of which are mononuclears. There is necrosis of some of the myocardial fibers. H and E $\times 150$. *B* Lower power ($\times 50$) of ventricular myocardium of a swine dying after 156 days on the experimental diet. Three episodes of anorexia vomiting and loss of weight had occurred accompanied by a rise in the pyruvic acid level in the blood. The first two episodes were ameliorated by the administration of small amounts of thiamine. Finally on the day of death the animal became dyspneic cyanosis developed followed by death. The section shows large areas where myocardial fibers were necrotic and had been replaced by leukocytes so that a sort of granulomatous lesion resulted. Some of these areas could be seen grossly. H and E $\times 50$.

dissociation complete block and auricular fibrillation. The tachycardia which has sometimes been observed in experimental animals has been interpreted to be an expression of cardiac decompensation.

Objective evidence of cardiac failure has appeared most prominently in swine (506) especially those animals subjected to severe, acute thiamine deficiency. Such pigs exhibit labored breathing and cyanosis, both of which are made worse by exercise. A number of animals have died suddenly, and no other cause for death save heart failure has been found after careful histological examination of the myocardium and other tissues.

reduced (491) Since these now classical studies, the relationship of thiamine to carbohydrate metabolism has been greatly broadened, and it now appears to participate in all oxidative decarboxylations which lead to the formation of CO₂ Thiamine participates in a series of reactions decarboxylation (488), oxidation (53), dismutation (492) and condensation (493)

Pathological Effects Experimental thiamine deficiency leads to disturbances in rats (96, 494), mice (772), hamsters (774, 775), cotton rats (614), cats (495), dogs (496), foxes (497), swine (498), and monkeys (499) Purified diets have not been used in all of these experiments however Poor food consumption is partially responsible for any growth disturbance because of the anorexia and vomiting which usually accompany the thiamine deficient state

Inasmuch as tissue concentrations of thiamine are reduced when this vitamin is restricted from the diet, it is not surprising that metabolic disturbances may be observed in experimental animals Elevations of blood pyruvic acid have been found in most species For instance, blood pyruvate levels as high as 9.9 mg percent have been observed in monkeys, the average normal value is 3.2 percent (499) Accompanying such alterations in tissue metabolites, a derangement of respiration has been observed in muscle, both cardiac and skeletal brain, kidney, and liver Of particular interest have been *in vitro* studies of the QO₂ of heart muscle (500) in view of the histological changes shortly to be described Although the oxygen consumption of the ventricles of thiamine-deficient and normal rats is about the same, that of the auricles is significantly lower in the former group, the ratio of the oxygen consumption of auricle to ventricle is 1.4 for thiamine-deficient animals and 2.0 for normal controls

Heart In those species in which detailed physiological or pathological observations have been carried out fairly consistent changes have been found in the heart Some time ago bradycardia was described as a distinctive feature of vitamin B deficiency in the rat (501) This observation has been confirmed by other investigators in rats (502-503) dogs (496), swine (504) cats (505) and monkeys (499) The possibility that inanition may lead to bradycardia should be and has been considered In swine studied by the present writer in association with Wintrobe et al (504) thiamine deficiency appears to cause a greater degree of slowing of the heart rate than can be ascribed to inanition alone That vagal overactivity may be a cause of the bradycardia is suggested by slowing of the heart in one animal to which atropine was administered Further evidence of damage to the myocardium has been furnished by electro-cardiographic studies which have been reported in rats dogs cats swine, and monkeys Extensive alterations have been described in swine (504) Such changes consist of prolonged P-R intervals abnormalities in the P wave increase of T₄, nodal and ventricular premature beats A-V

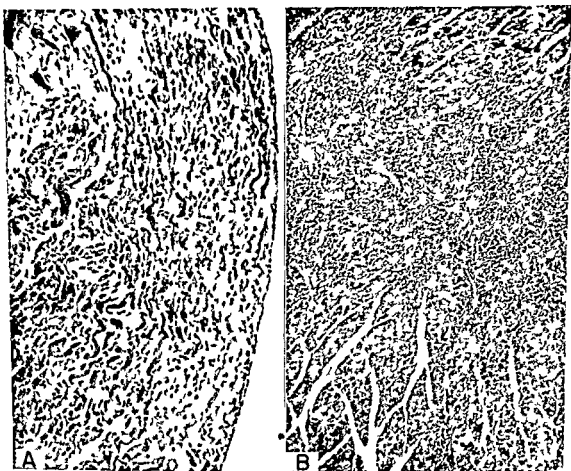


FIGURE 47 Heart Thiamine Deficiency (506) *A* Auricular myocardium of a pig which died suddenly after having been on a thiamine deficient diet for 37 days. Note diffuse infiltration with leukocytes many of which are mononuclears. There is necrosis of some of the myocardial fibers. H and E $\times 150$. *B* Lower power ($\times 50$) of ventricular myocardium of a swine dying after 156 days on the experimental diet. Three episodes of anorexia vomiting and loss of weight had occurred accompanied by a rise in the pyruvic acid level in the blood. The first two episodes were ameliorated by the administration of small amounts of thiamine. Finally on the day of death the animal became dyspneic cyanosis developed followed by death. The section shows large areas where myocardial fibers were necrotic and had been replaced by leukocytes so that a sort of granulomatous lesion resulted. Some of these areas could be seen grossly. H and E $\times 50$.

dissociation, complete block, and auricular fibrillation. The tachycardia which has sometimes been observed in experimental animals has been interpreted to be an expression of cardiac decompensation.

Objective evidence of cardiac failure has appeared most prominently in swine (506) especially those animals subjected to severe, acute thiamine deficiency. Such pigs exhibit labored breathing and cyanosis, both of which are made worse by exercise. A number of animals have died suddenly, and no other cause for death save heart failure has been found after careful histological examination of the myocardium and other tissues.

reduced (491). Since these now classical studies, the relationship of thiamine to carbohydrate metabolism has been greatly broadened, and it now appears to participate in all oxidative decarboxylations which lead to the formation of CO_2 . Thiamine participates in a series of reactions: decarboxylation (488), oxidation (53), dismutation (492) and condensation (493).

Pathological Effects Experimental thiamine deficiency leads to disturbances in rats (96, 494), mice (772), hamsters (774, 775), cotton rats (614), cats (495), dogs (496), foxes (497), swine (498) and monkeys (499). Purified diets have not been used in all of these experiments, however. Poor food consumption is partially responsible for any growth disturbance because of the anorexia and vomiting which usually accompany the thiamine deficient state.

Inasmuch as tissue concentrations of thiamine are reduced when this vitamin is restricted from the diet, it is not surprising that metabolic disturbances may be observed in experimental animals. Elevations of blood pyruvic acid have been found in most species. For instance, blood pyruvate levels as high as 9.9 mg percent have been observed in monkeys, the average normal value is 3.2 percent (499). Accompanying such alterations in tissue metabolites a derangement of respiration has been observed in muscle, both cardiac and skeletal, brain, kidney, and liver. Of particular interest have been *in vitro* studies of the QO of heart muscle (500) in view of the histological changes shortly to be described. Although the oxygen consumption of the ventricles of thiamine-deficient and normal rats is about the same that of the auricles is significantly lower in the former group, the ratio of the oxygen consumption of auricle to ventricle is 1.4 for thiamine-deficient animals and 2.0 for normal controls.

Heart In those species in which detailed physiological or pathological observations have been carried out fairly consistent changes have been found in the heart. Some time ago bradycardia was described as a distinctive feature of vitamin B deficiency in the rat (501). This observation has been confirmed by other investigators in rats (502, 503), dogs (496), swine (504), cats (505), and monkeys (499). The possibility that inanition may lead to bradycardia should be and has been considered. In swine studied by the present writer in association with Wintrobe et al. (504) thiamine deficiency appears to cause a greater degree of slowing of the heart rate than can be ascribed to inanition alone. That vagal overactivity may be a cause of the bradycardia is suggested by slowing of the heart in one animal to which atropine was administered. Further evidence of damage to the myocardium has been furnished by electro-cardiographic studies which have been reported in rats, dogs, cats, swine, and monkeys. Extensive alterations have been described in swine (504). Such changes consist of prolonged P-R intervals, abnormalities in the P wave, increase of T_4 , nodal and ventricular premature beats, A-V



FIGURE 48 Heart Chronic Thiamine Deficiency (506) Ventricular myocardium of swine which had been on the deficient diet for 246 days. There had been numerous episodes of acute thiamine deficiency as evidenced by bouts of vomiting and anorexia accompanied by elevation of the blood pyruvate levels. The animal was in a state of severe deprivation for the last 100 days of life with continual elevated pyruvate concentrations. In addition to fresh lesions which were found in the auricles and ventricles scars such as those shown in the photomicrograph above were found in areas where muscle fibers had disappeared. Such lesions are interpreted to be the sites of previous necroses which had healed. Mallory's stain $\times 150$

It is of interest to recall that lesions identical with those produced by thiamine deficiency have been observed in animals deficient in potassium (87). When these two deficiencies are simultaneously produced no lesions whatsoever appear in the myocardium (96). The reason for this requires further investigation.

No anatomical lesions have been observed in the striated muscles of thiamine deficient animals, however, necroses have been produced in rats in which there is a concurrent potassium and thiamine deficiency (96).

Nervous System Thiamine deficiency has been indicted as the cause of lesions in the nervous tissues. Here the pathological alterations are not as clear-cut as are the changes which have just been described in the heart. The present state of affairs is perhaps best exemplified by the following two quotations:

When the literature of the last 10 years is considered in perspective, the conclusion is inescapable that thiamine has never deserved the title of 'antineuritic vitamin' and has not yet shown itself capable of filling completely the role that was formerly assigned to the hypothetical antiberiberi vitamin. Meiklejohn 1940 (509)

At autopsy the heart of the thiamine-deficient animal is usually described as dilated (rats, dogs, swine). Evidence for cardiac hypertrophy is extremely difficult to evaluate. Heart weight-body weight ratios which appear to be definitely above normal have been reported in a few of the swine we have observed, it must be emphasized however, that in other animals whose growth is greatly retarded by various means the heart body weight ratio is also found to be increased, the heart may approximate 1.0 percent of the total weight which is the highest ratio which has been observed in thiamine deficient swine.

Microscopic lesions in the myocardium have been described in rats (494) dogs (496) foxes (497), and swine (506). The most extensive alterations are found in the heart of the litter species where changes may appear as early as the 37th day of the deficiency. The lesions consist of necrosis of muscle fibers. Initially there is a loss of striations accompanied by vacuolation and hyalinization of the myofibrils. Leucocytes, both polymorphonuclear and mononuclear then appear. The necroses are either focal or diffuse in one animal which we have observed they could be seen grossly. The necroses are found in both the auricular and ventricular myocardium. An exception has been noted in one pig dying at an early stage, in this animal only the auricular musculature was affected. A significant difference in the response of the auricular and ventricular musculature in thiamine deficiency is further suggested by observations in rats whose auricles are found to be involved far more frequently than the ventricles. In this connection it is interesting to recall the differences in the oxygen consumption of auricular and ventricular muscle from thiamine-deficient rats which were referred to above (500).

In swine which have passed through several episodes of clinical thiamine deficiency scars may be found at autopsy and have been interpreted to indicate foci where previously there had been necrotic myocardial fibers. The coronary vessels of thiamine-deficient animals as well as the endocardium and epicardium are not remarkable, no mural thrombi have been observed in swine. A pointed study of the conduction system has not been made.

The cause of the bradycardia, electrocardiographic changes and morphological lesions is obscure. Since the accumulation of certain metabolic products may be responsible large amounts of pyruvic acid, sodium pyruvate and related substances have been administered to normal and thiamine deficient rats (507-508). Under such circumstances only slight changes are observed in the heart rate and electrocardiogram so that one must conclude that it is unlikely that accumulations of such metabolites are an important factor. However it should be pointed out that by such means a sustained elevation of blood pyruvic acid has not been produced. We are, therefore, at a loss to explain the changes specifically except to refer them to the defects in metabolism which are known to accompany thiamine deficiency.

dition in that species as well. Such rats display an apparent lameness of the fore and hind legs, they walk with these extremities extended and the gait is weak and unsteady. Ataxia also may be present, accompanied by cart-wheel or rolling movements, convulsions have been observed. The development and cure of this syndrome in rats as a test for vitamin B₁ was first introduced by McCollum and Simmonds in 1918 (515) and has been used by many subsequent investigators (516), most of whom seem to have had little doubt that they were dealing with animals in which morphological changes were present.

In the following discussion the neurological aspects of thiamine deficiency will be divided for convenience into a consideration of the peripheral nerves followed by an appraisal of the central nervous system. In evaluating the experiments which are cited below two factors must always be borne in mind. In many of the experiments autoclaved yeast has been used as a source of the B group since heat of course destroys thiamine. Excessive temperatures may also destroy other components of the B complex, for instance pantothenic acid (522). Secondly, animals on a thiamine-deficient diet fail to eat so that the effects of inanition must always be rigidly controlled. Finally, many of the diets have not contained all of the essential nutrients particularly vitamin K and in birds certain amino acids.

The studies of birds on rice diets profoundly influenced the pathologic investigations in other species until careful studies were performed in the latter group. Examination of the peripheral nerves of rats fed diets containing autoclaved yeast have revealed no significant morphological differences from control animals (517-518, 519-520). The changes which do appear may be ascribed to inanition. In such animals classical signs of vitamin B₁ deficiency (referred to above) are observed. When cats are placed on a thiamine deficient diet for as long as 116 days no histological changes can be detected in the peripheral nerves (521). In addition more conclusive evidence is furnished by studies of nerve action potentials of such thiamine-deficient and normal cats. No differences are found nor is there any disturbance in the regenerative capacity of the peripheral nerves of thiamine-deficient animals (521). In swine the present writer in association with Wintrobe et al. has failed to find any evidence that thiamine deficiency leads to morphological changes in the peripheral nervous system, in particular the sensory neuraxis (506-522).

In the three mammalian species just mentioned no evidence of myelin degeneration of the peripheral nerves has been found. In contrast data have been presented chiefly by Swank and his collaborators (523-524) which tend to indicate that in pigeons at least lesions occur in the peripheral nerves. Heretofore Aves have not been considered in this book. Since the observations of Swank are at variance with those encountered in other species

The most constant and striking findings of thiamine deficiency arise from chemical alterations which lead ultimately to degenerative changes in the nervous system. Changes in the posterior spinal ganglion and anterior horn cells have been noted. Degeneration is most severe in the sciatic nerve and its branches but degenerative changes may be found in any of the peripheral nerves' Spies and Butt 1942 (510)

In 1897 Eijkman described a 'beriberi-like disease' in fowl which had been placed on a ration consisting of polished rice (485) 'The beginning of the disease is characterized by an unsteady gait which first of all manifests itself in walking about on the perch as if the animal cannot squeeze its toes around it firmly enough and must exert itself in order not to fall off. The disturbance in motility soon increases in intensity and speed. The fowl no longer has the strength to climb up, because of weakness it holds its limbs spread apart and bent at the knee and ankle joints, when running it frequently collapses or falls over. Finally it remains lying on its side and in its fruitless efforts the developing paralysis of the wing muscles also becomes noticeable. The paralysis of the body musculature rapidly progresses from below upward."

Eijkman later epitomized the pathological changes (511) 'The involvement of the peripheral nerves is the most important feature that post-mortem investigation reveals to date. It involves both the sensory and motor portions which occur focally in the nerve trunks and produces the picture of non-inflammatory atrophic degeneration such as is observed after transection of a nerve in the distal portion of the divided fragment. However, definite changes in the spinal cord and spinal cord roots are also not lacking. These show likewise the appearance of degeneration and atrophy.

Based on such findings Eijkman referred to the experimental disease as "polyneuritis gallinarum". In none of his papers are experimental protocols presented or photomicrographs reproduced. Eijkman's experiments were repeated by Vedder and Clark (513) who have illustrated degenerative lesions in the peripheral nerves.

It should be clearly understood that the diets employed by Eijkman and Vedder were composed of polished rice. Such diets are obviously inadequate in many respects as McCollum (514) pointed out many years ago, for besides being deficient in minerals, most of the vitamins in particular the fat-soluble group are not present. "Polyneuritis gallinarum" as studied by the early workers is not a syndrome due to a single nutrient but clearly one caused by deficiency of several.

From these studies in birds it was concluded that the purified material from rice polishings was the antineuritic vitamin. When a characteristic syndrome which could be prevented by extracts of rice polishing was also observed in deficient rats, the term 'polyneuritis' was applied to the con-

studies of the central nervous system have not been carried out in this species, either

Lesions have been described in the central nervous tissues of rats. Here, hemorrhagic foci, as well as chromatolysis or clumping of the Nissl substance of the nerve cells, have been noted in Deiter's nuclei, the vestibular nuclei, the nuclei of Bechterew, and the nucleus solitarius. In kittens dying of acute thiamine deficiency, chromatolysis and necrosis of neurons have been observed (530). Small hemorrhages are also said to be present in the vestibular nuclei and there is swelling of oligodendrocytes. The course of such animals with respect to weight gain or loss and the absence of control observations make this study of questionable value, however.

Thiamine has a marked effect on a spontaneous paralytic disease of foxes (497). The syndrome which was first reported from the Chastek fur farm in Minnesota is characterized by a rapidly progressing paralysis. At autopsy, bilateral symmetrical degenerative lesions of certain nuclear masses in the paraventricular regions are encountered. It has been concluded that the Chastek paralysis is the pathologic counterpart of Wernicke's hemorrhagic encephalitis in man, a point which will be discussed in more detail shortly. The disease in foxes results from the presence of a factor in raw fish, which appears to be a thiamine destroying enzyme (533). Although when thiamine is administered to affected animals recovery ensues, deficiencies of other essential nutrients may also be present, since at autopsy in animals dying with Chastek paralysis, a severe degree of hepatic lipoidosis is also observed.

Again it is necessary to mention certain lesions which have been described in pigeons by Swank et al. (530) and by Alexander and his group (529). The latter fed pigeons a ration of rice, supplemented with riboflavin and vitamins A, C, and D. Since, on this diet which is obviously inadequate in many essential nutrients, the birds develop hemorrhagic vascular lesions in the brain, Alexander has postulated without any justification whatsoever that thiamine possesses "angiodegenerative properties." Swank describes similar vascular lesions in pigeons as well as changes in nerve cells and fibers, particularly those of the vestibular system and the oculomotor group (530). The latter experiments must be questioned for the same reasons that Shaw and Phillips pointed out and which were discussed above (525). Swank has also applied the technique of electro-encephalography to supplement his morphological investigations (531). During the initial stage of the deficiency the amplitude of the brain waves increases, later there is a reduction in frequency with occasional paroxysmal discharges of epileptiform-like character. It would be most interesting to apply this technique to other species deficient only in thiamine.

In summary, it appears that thiamine deficiency may produce lesions in the brains of Mammalia. Such changes consist of degeneration of neurons,

it seems desirable to mention them, inasmuch as they have assumed a good deal of prominence in contemporary nutrition. When young pigeons are forced-fed diets containing very small amounts of thiamine lesions consisting of myelin and axon degeneration of the peripheral nerves are observed. In assuming that food placed in the pigeon's crop is utilized, Swank has been criticized by Shaw and Phillips (525) who feel that inanition may have led to Swank's findings since "the natural tendency of the bird to reduce its colonic intake during the thiamine deficiency could not be overcome by introducing food into the upper part of the digestive tract." The experiments of Shaw and Phillips lend support to the view that chronic thiamine deficiency may play a role in the development of neurological lesions in birds. They are careful to point out, however, that other factors may be important, included among such factors are the amino acids, glycine and arginine, since the chick requirements for these nutrients are different from those of Mammalia (526, 527). In concluding this discussion of the peripheral nervous system there is no good evidence that thiamine deficiency leads to structural or functional lesions of the peripheral nerves of the Mammalia thus far studied. The question in birds requires further investigation. A discussion of the situation in man will be reserved until later.

Changes in the central nervous system of thiamine-deficient animals may be considered from both physiological and anatomical standpoints. It seems agreed that lesions may occur in some Mammalian species. When rats are placed on a diet whose B vitamin supplement is autoclaved yeast, a significant disturbance of vestibular function appears as evidenced by an increased duration of nystagmus following rotation (528). Physiological alterations have also been studied in thiamine deficient cats whose diets contained adequate essential nutrients including pyridoxine and pantothenic acid (495). The course of the feline syndrome can be divided into three stages. The first which lasts three to four weeks is marked by increasing anorexia and vomiting; ataxia is sometimes observed at this time. The second stage is manifested by abnormal posture, ataxia, dilatation of the pupils, and the presence of abnormal reflexes such as body righting, vestibulo-ocular and pupillary light reactions. The flexor knee kick, and hopping responses are all normal. This stage is followed by one in which convulsions are prominent and are followed by death. From the neurological signs which these cats exhibit it has been concluded that the mid-brain is most severely involved but it is unfortunate that histological studies have not been carried out to confirm or deny such a supposition. In another study in cats (521) changes as severe as those just described have not been encountered, only ataxia and mild vestibular disturbances were observed. In this experiment it was thought that the animals succumbed as a result of cardiac damage. Prosis, incoordination, and ataxia have been described in monkeys (499) though anatomical

before passing judgment. Inasmuch too as beriberi must be considered a multiple deficiency disease it is possible that a lack of other nutrients may prevent the effects of thiamine deficiency from becoming apparent in the myocardium. This has some experimental basis, for when there is a concomitant deficiency of potassium and thiamine no cardiac lesions are found although a deficiency of either of these nutrients leads to necrosis of the muscle fibers (96).

In several studies of experimental thiamine deficiency in man manifestations of cardiac abnormality have been extremely insignificant. Electrocardiographic changes of minimal nature have been encountered in a few instances of thiamine deficiency in experimental subjects by investigators at the Mayo Clinic (535). No outspoken evidence of cardiac embarrassment has been detected although it is obvious that it would be hazardous to carry thiamine deficiency too far in view of its known effect on the heart of the experimental animal. In the human then aside from the demonstrated effects of thiamine on the function of the myocardium there is little precise information as to the pathological effects which uncomplicated thiamine deficiency has on the heart muscle fibers. A pointed study of this would seem to be in order in an area where beriberi is, and unfortunately may continue to be endemic for instance South China (536). Extremely valuable information could be obtained if the hearts of persons who die of clinical beriberi were weighed and then examined microscopically with care and if concomitant analyses of the thiamine content of blood cells and heart muscle were performed.

Verrous Tissues. Knowledge of lesions which occur in uncomplicated thiamine deficiency in man are equally inadequate. Many cases of clinical beriberi exhibit widespread disturbances in neuro-muscular function: paresthesias, anesthetics, disturbed reflexes, muscle tenderness and weakness, all are common. Lesions have been described in patients dying of beriberi. Such changes consist of degeneration of the peripheral nerves, myelin loss is found in the nerve roots and degenerative changes have been noted in the tracts of the spinal cord. It must be remembered, however, that such changes may be due to a deficiency of one or more nutrients other than thiamine. In view of the absence of degenerative changes in the peripheral nervous system of animals on inadequate thiamine intakes, it would seem wise at this time to be somewhat cautious in the evaluation of the effects of thiamine deficiency on the peripheral nervous system of man.

Although clinical polyneuritis has been described in human experimental thiamine deficiency the data are not too convincing. For instance a purified diet consisting of casein, fat, sugar, salt, and vitamin supplements has been employed to study the effects of thiamine deficiency on a series of individuals for as long as eighteen months (537). The thiamine content

particularly those of the vestibular group. The vascular changes are not clear cut and should be re-investigated utilizing animals on purified diets supplied with adequate crystalline vitamins not autoclaved yeast. Such diets have been employed by the writer and Wintrobe in swine which lesions of the brain have not been observed even though thiamine was the only nutrient restricted from the diet (522).

Thiamine Deficiency in Man The pathological manifestations of uncomplicated thiamine deficiency in man are not clearly understood. The clinical disease, beriberi as it is observed in the Orient, may appear in several forms: 1 "Dry" beriberi with symptoms and signs referable to the neuro-muscular system (weakness, paresthesias, sensory loss, etc.) 2 "Wet" beriberi in which there is diffuse edema. 3 Cardiac beriberi usually manifested by cardiac failure, dilatation of the heart, and elevated venous pressure. As one would expect mixed types of these 3 forms are not uncommon. However, inasmuch as beriberi of the Orient, especially China, results from diets containing inadequate quantities of polished rice alone, it is reasonable to conclude that the clinical syndrome is a manifestation not only of a caloric deficiency but a multiple vitamin and mineral deficiency as well. The nutritional inadequacy of rice has already been noted (514). Some forms of clinical beriberi, however, apparently do have very close relationships to experimental thiamine deficiency in animals. This subject can best be treated by discussing the cardiovascular and neuro-muscular systems in the naturally occurring disease and in experimental thiamine deficiency in man.

Heart Electrocardiographic alterations are a prominent manifestation of beriberi and such changes revert to normal when thiamine is administered (534). Changes have likewise been observed in experimental thiamine deficiency in man (535). Post mortem examinations of patients dying of clinical beriberi have revealed relatively little in the myocardium. The heart is said to be enlarged (532) though its weight is not usually mentioned. It is therefore difficult to determine from the available reports whether the enlargement is due to simple dilatation or whether there is hypertrophy as well. The cases of Occidental beriberi studied by Weiss (534) showed simple dilatation in some instances while the heart in other cases showed evidence of hypertrophy. If increase in size of the muscle fibers does occur, the reason for this is not clear. In clinical beriberi there is no hypertension, as a matter of fact Weiss (534) found that the arterioles were dilated. Microscopic examination of the hearts of patients dying from beriberi has revealed very little to date. The presence of hydropic degeneration together with mild scarring and sometimes fatty infiltration are the only changes which have been described. It must be emphasized however that few careful investigations of the microscopic appearance of the myocardium have been performed so that it is better to wait a pointed investigation of the subject.

Wernicke's Disease in man Alexander has concluded that the two diseases are identical and further infers that the latter syndrome results from thiamine deficiency (543) It will be recalled that the diet employed by Alexander consisted of rice fortified only with riboflavin, ascorbic acid, and sources of vitamin A and D, a ration grossly deficient in certain elements and vitamins, especially those of the B complex and fat-soluble group particularly vitamin K It is unfortunate, therefore, that thiamine has been indicted as the sole cause of such lesions in man and pigeons Alterations of the brain in Christek paralysis of foxes have also been called a "counterpart" of Wernicke's Disease in the human (497) Although thiamine cures the manifestations of the fox syndrome, it will be recalled that animals which die provide at autopsy some evidence that deficiencies in other nutrients are present as well

It is, therefore to be deplored that the hypothesis that thiamine deficiency is the cause of Wernicke's Disease has been rather widely accepted without a full evaluation of the experimental data upon which such a supposition is based The relation of uncomplicated thiamine deficiency to this syndrome is not at all clear at the present time It is gratifying that in a report of forty-two cases of Wernicke's Disease which were studied by Riggs and Boles (539) it is suggested that "nutritional deficiency forms the basic background of Wernicke's Disease", the authors realize, however, that a multiple deficiency rather than a lack of thiamine alone may be responsible One has only to recall the occurrence of liver disease in alcoholics and the relation of this organ to the production of prothrombin, to wonder whether the hemorrhages said to be pathognomic of Wernicke's Disease may in any way be related to vitamin K deficiency (767) It should further be pointed out that the prothrombin time is increased in choline deficient dogs (675)

It is unlikely that uncomplicated thiamine deficiency ever occurs in man except under experimental conditions Thiamine deficiency on the other hand accompanied by deficiencies in other essential nutrients is widespread at least in certain portions of the Orient, for instance, in South China beriberi is the most important nutritional disease (536) That thiamine deficiency is present is revealed by the absence of this vitamin in the urine (540) Confirmed cases of beriberi are rare in the United States Although Weiss found that the incidence of cardiac manifestations of beriberi occurred in one of every 160 medical admissions in Boston other clinicians throughout this country have failed to confirm such a high rate (541) Cases of alleged beriberi are reported in the literature from time to time the majority of which are instances of cardiac hypertrophy with or without myocardial scarring and mural thrombi (542) Evidence of thiamine deficiency is usually based on a poor dietary history in the subject and no other etiological factor

of this diet was gradually reduced to zero. Symptoms and signs appeared in four out of nine subjects and consisted of "neuritis" (otherwise unspecified) edema, anorexia and sometimes vomiting. Investigators at the Mayo Clinic (538) placed two individuals on a regimen in which there was 1 mg of thiamine per thousand calories. This also led to weakness, anorexia, and vomiting. In addition evidence of neuro-muscular involvement appeared numbness and tingling of the legs, sensory disturbances, tenderness of the calf muscles, weakness of the extremities and loss of the achilles and patellar reflexes. It is extremely unfortunate that biopsies of nerve and muscle were not performed on these two subjects to confirm or deny the appearance of anatomical changes especially since fifty days of thiamine therapy were required to correct the defects in one case, while the reflexes of the other subject did not respond even after four months of treatment. The observations on these two subjects are the sum total of our knowledge concerning the relationship of thiamine to the integrity of the peripheral nervous system in the human. Such evidence unaccompanied by any morphologic data is much too inadequate. It is further of some significance that the administration of thiamine to patients exhibiting the clinical signs and symptoms of Occidental beriberi appears to result in far more rapid improvement of cardiac manifestations than those referable to the neuro-muscular system (534). So too Hibbes (295) in a study of the neurological manifestations of beriberi in a Japanese prison camp noted no improvement in 12 men to whom 29 mg of thiamine chloride was administered daily for 3 weeks. The clinical characteristics of the disease in the group so studied were sensory in nature. Administration of all the vitamin B group lead to some improvement however.

Another syndrome allegedly related to thiamine deficiency in man is so-called Wernicke's Disease. In 1881 Wernicke described three cases of "acute hemorrhagic Polioencephalitis superior" which were characterized clinically by clouding of consciousness, ataxia and ophthalmoplegia. In the disease as it is now recognized lesions are present in the gray matter of the brain and are characterized by small foci of nuclear degeneration with varicose changes of the blood vessels. Most striking is the precise symmetrical distribution of the lesions which are usually found in the paramedian and paraventricular nuclei of the thalamus and hypothalamus, the region of the habenulae and in several of the cranial nerve nuclei. Numerous cases of Wernicke's Disease have been reported particularly in alcoholics.

From the previous discussion of changes in the pigeons which were reported by Alexander et al (529) it will be recalled that lesions are said to occur in the brain and to consist of symmetrical foci of damage in the gray matter together with hemorrhages and changes in the blood vessels. Because of the similarity of these alterations to the pathological manifestations

this decrease is independent of the intake of the vitamin. Riboflavin balance is affected by the thiamine content of the diet, since it has been observed that chronic thiamine deficiency leads to a great loss of riboflavin in the urine, a loss which is unaccounted for by body tissue breakdown (549).

The relationship of riboflavin to liver metabolism has been brought out in an interesting series of experiments dealing with the hepatic inactivation of an estrogen, estradiol (550). When liver slices from animals depleted in riboflavin are incubated with estradiol they fail to inactivate the hormone, whereas normal liver slices destroy it. In this connection it is of interest that animals receiving large amounts of estrogenic hormone (7) develop atrophy of the epidermis similar to that seen in riboflavin deficiency (552). Livers of animals deficient in pyridoxine, pantothenic acid, biotin, or vitamin A retain their ability to inactivate estradiol, while thiamine-deficient animals react in a way similar to those deficient in riboflavin. A relationship of riboflavin to lipid metabolism has been shown, for when high-fat diets are fed to riboflavin-deficient rats, such animals survive for a shorter time than those on a high-carbohydrate diet and also develop 'spastic paralysis' of the hind quarters (551).

Pathological Effects. Riboflavin has been shown to be an essential nutrient for the mouse (772), rat (551, 552), cotton rat (614), hamster (774, 775), dog (554), pig (555), and monkey (556). Prominent changes have been described in the skin, the eyes, and the nervous tissues, as well as certain isolated organs.

Skin. When growing rats are placed on a riboflavin-deficient diet, an initial gain is followed in a few weeks by a loss in weight (552). Skin changes develop after six weeks; the fur becomes uneven and ragged, and is eventually crusted with a dark reddish-brown substance. The hair then becomes loose over the venter, which results in a partial alopecia. Small white dry scales appear along with these changes in the hair. The hair is lost from the eyelids; the lips are erythematous, swollen, and denuded of fur.

Microscopically, there is an atrophy of the epidermis and its appendages. In the early stages there is some hyperkeratosis; no inflammation is present. Most prominent are the changes in the sebaceous glands, whose cells become swollen and then atrophic. The rudimentary coil glands likewise atrophy. During the early stages the hair follicles remain normal in appearance. However, the hair which is formed is imperfect. Later the follicular cells become atrophic. Fully developed riboflavin deficiency is characterized by a skin whose sebaceous glands and hair follicles are almost completely atrophied and whose epidermis has decreased in thickness. Following therapy with riboflavin the skin changes undergo involution. On the tongue of the rat the filiform papillae of the anterior portion exhibit a defective formation of cornified cells (317).

to explain the lesions. It would seem that the only certain proof of thiamine deficiency in such hearts is the determination of the actual concentration of thiamine in the muscle fibers themselves. Methods are now available by which this vitamin may be assayed in tissues and it is hoped that such procedures will be applied to the myocardium and to other tissues of persons suspected of dying as a result of beriberi or of any undiagnosed heart disease.

Riboflavin

Historical The biological importance of certain yellow pigments from various sources became apparent in 1932 when Warburg and Christian (544) announced the isolation of a yellow respiratory enzyme and showed that it could be split into two portions—protein and pigment. Shortly thereafter several laboratories reported the isolation of yellow-green fluorescent pigments from a variety of sources. Among this group Kuhn and his associates (545) isolated a flavin which had both the biological activity of vitamin B and a close resemblance to Warburg and Christian's enzyme. Kuhn then determined the chemical composition and structure of this active substance which he named "lactoflavin" and in 1935 announced its synthesis (546). Lactoflavin or riboflavin, the term adopted by the Council on Pharmacy and Chemistry of the American Medical Association, is composed of iso-alloxazine and ribose.

Biochemical Relationships Riboflavin is phosphorylated in the intestine. The ensuing riboflavin-5-phosphate is then used to build a number of flavo-protein enzymes. Riboflavin-5-phosphate is the prosthetic group in Warburg and Christian's original yellow enzyme (544) and in cytochrome C reductase. In all other known flavoprotein enzymes riboflavin-5-phosphate is united with adenylic acid to form riboflavin-adenine-dinucleotide, the prosthetic group of a variety of proteins which form the complete enzymes which function as hydrogen carriers. The effect of riboflavin deficiency on the tissue concentrations of several specific flavoproteins has been studied. The concentrations of d-amino oxidase are reduced in the liver and kidney of riboflavin-deficient rats (80) while the same is true of xanthine oxidase content in the liver of similarly depleted rats (547). Riboflavin may be demonstrated histochemically for microscopic study (760).

Studies of riboflavin-deficient rats have revealed no noteworthy changes in the various non-protein constituents of the blood (633). A moderate creatinuria has been observed, however. A direct relationship has been noted between the protein intake and the riboflavin content of rat liver (548) for when dietary protein is reduced the hepatic content of riboflavin falls and

Ocular Apparatus Corneal lesions have been described in the rat, mouse, and dog. The changes have been most extensively studied in the first species. In 1939, Bessey and Wolbach (557) carefully described a most interesting manifestation of riboflavin deficiency—corneal vascularization. During the end of the fourth week of the deficient syndrome they are able to detect an ingrowth of capillaries toward the center of the cornea. The vessels at the limbus seem to serve as the source of these sprouting capillaries. In the ensuing weeks new vessels extend further and further, eventually almost reaching the center of the cornea. The first vessels grow just under the corneal epithelium. The advancing border of the invading vessels is made up of a mass of anastomotic channels with "glomerulus-like loops and arrow-headed-like pointed sprouts." As the deficiency continues the capillaries penetrate deeper into the tunica propria, however only in rare instances are vessels found deeper than the junction of the middle and lower (deep) third of the tunica. Soon after vascular penetration of the cornea begins, leucocytes appear and continue to infiltrate the tissue. Changes in the corneal epithelium are not observed during the early stages of the deficiency. Later on, however although the basal cells remain normal in appearance, the superficial cells become separated and vacuoles form between them and the deeper cell layers. Decemet's membrane and the endothelial lining of the inner surface of the cornea appear normal. The cornea becomes progressively cloudy and in the later stages of the deficiency ulceration occurs.

Following treatment with riboflavin the turbidity of the cornea rapidly clears up. Vessels are no longer seen although microscopic study reveals that collapsed capillaries can be observed in animals for as long as two months following institution of therapy.

The cause of the ingrowth of capillaries is not at all clear. Whether this is a manifestation of damage to corneal epithelium and/or tunica propria cannot be decided at present from histological preparations although corneal vascularization commonly accompanies the damage to these structures and of course may be produced experimentally by appropriate measures (597). It is also possible that the capillaries are a means of supplying riboflavin to cells whose ordinary sources are cut off. Bessey and Lowry (558) have demonstrated a reduction in the riboflavin content of the deficient rat's cornea. Since the concentration of riboflavin and riboflavin adenine dinucleotide are maximal in the lachrymal and meibomian glands (of the ox at least) (559) it is quite possible that the secretions of these structures are the cornea's source of riboflavin. When the riboflavin content of such secretions is lowered by diminished dietary intake it is obvious that the cornea will receive less of this important vitamin.

Bessey and Lowry (558) have explored the possibility that visible or ultraviolet light may inactivate the riboflavin of the cornea *in vivo*, inas-

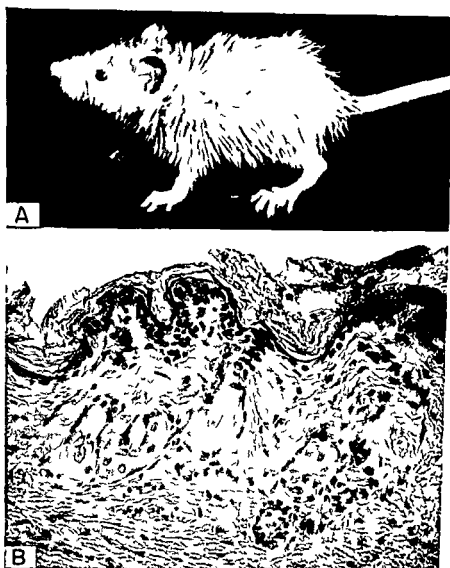


FIGURE 49. Skin. Riboflavin Deficiency (552). A Rat which had been on a riboflavin deficient diet for about six weeks. Note uneven and ragged appearance of the fur and stunting of the animal. Alopecia usually begins at this stage. B Section of skin to show disintegration of sebaceous gland cells with loss of nuclei. This change occurs a little later. In addition there is beginning atrophy of the epithelium with slight hyperkeratosis. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan and *The Journal of Investigative Dermatology*.)

In the mouse the epidermis microscopically shows either atrophy or hyperkeratosis, there are intra epithelial accumulations of leukocytes (553). The sebaceous glands in contrast to those of the rat appear normal. However, the pathogenesis of the skin lesions in this species is not clear and further study is necessary. "Dermatitis" about the mouth has been described in the riboflavin-deficient hamster (774) and when dogs are placed on a riboflavin deficient regimen dry scaling of the skin, accompanied by erythema of the hind legs, chest and abdomen has been observed (554). Erythema and scaling of the epidermis have also been reported in swine (555) and monkeys (556).

lens and consist of 'white dot and streak opacities and a few minute vacuoles'

Nervous Tissues Equivocal changes have been noted in the nervous tissues of mice dogs swine and monkeys. In the mouse myelin degenera-

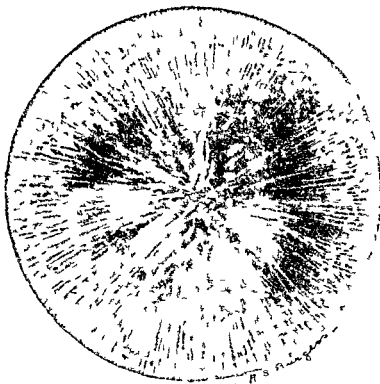


FIGURE 51. Cataract. Lens of a riboflavin swine to show opacities. (Courtesy of *Bulletin of the Johns Hopkins Hospital*.)

tion as evidenced by the Marchi stain has been found in the brachial and sciatic nerves, degeneration in the dorsal columns of the spinal cord has likewise been mentioned (553). In the dog demyelination of the dorsal columns of the spinal cord and peripheral nerves has been described (563). In one of three swine studied by the present writer myelin degeneration of the sciatic and brachial nerves was observed (555). No histological studies have been carried out in the monkey although when such animals are placed on a riboflavin-deficient diet they develop incoordination, a faulty grasp reflex, and loss of strength in the arms and legs (556).

Blood There is some evidence that riboflavin deficiency leads to impairment of red blood cell formation. If rats are rendered deficient in riboflavin and then subjected to repeated hemorrhages a marked disturbance of red blood cell and hemoglobin regeneration is found (712). A mild microcytic hypochromic anemia is said to develop in dogs (554, 564) while in swine (555) a moderate normocytic anemia develops and in monkeys (556).

much as such radiation leads to inactivation *in vitro*. The results, however, have been negative as these investigators have not been able to note any difference in the effects of brilliant and continuous illumination upon the development of anatomical changes in the cornea (560)

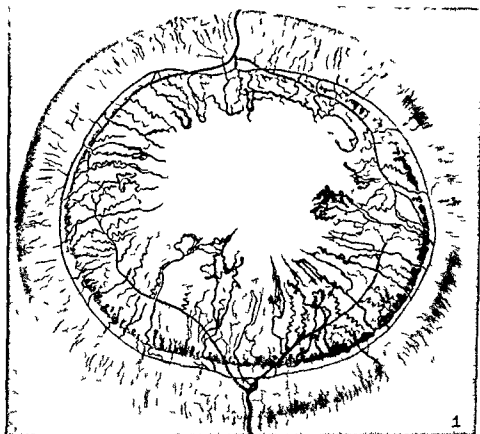


FIGURE 50 Cornea of riboflavin deficient rat. There is extensive vascularization of this structure with the ingrowth of many new capillaries. (Courtesy of Dr S B Wolbach and the *Journal of Experimental Medicine*.)

The lens is another site of damage in the riboflavin deficient animal. Cataracts have been observed in rats (561), and swine (555). Day and his co-workers (561) have described lesions in the lens of the riboflavin deficient rat, consisting of a central opacity which spreads peripherally, such cataracts can be arrested by the administration of riboflavin. Other investigators have failed to find changes in the lens of riboflavin-deficient animals. These discrepancies have been clarified, however, by the demonstration that cataracts do not regularly appear when the diet is completely devoid of riboflavin, but make themselves manifest when small but inadequate amounts of riboflavin are administered (562). On a riboflavin-deficient diet 2 of 3 swine developed cataracts after 135 and 145 days of the regimen (555). The cataracts in these animals are located in the superficial portion of the cortex of the



FIGURE 53. Riboflavin Deficiency and Congenital Malformation. Three embryos stained and cleared to show bone lesions. A Normal control. B and C Newborn rats of riboflavin deficient females. Note fusion or non-separation of ribs. Note shortening of radius and ulna of C as well as absence of tibia and fibula. The tibia is not present in B. The progressive shortening of the mandible in B and C is also striking. (Courtesy of Dr. Josef Warkany and *The Mink Memorial Fund Quarterly*.)

Riboflavin Deficiency in Man Lesions which were specifically ascribed to a deficiency of riboflavin have been reported by Sebrell and Butler (586) in a group of women who had been placed on an experimental diet containing thiamine and an unknown amount of the other B vitamins. After ingesting such a ration for a variable period changes appeared about the mouth and nasolabial folds. In the former site there were macerated areas at the angles of the mouth where fissures formed; in addition reddening of the lips along the line of closure and thinning of the mucosa were observed. These changes were called cheilosis (a morbid condition of the lips). The nasolabial folds and ala nasi exhibited a scaling greasy dermatitis. The cheilosis and skin lesions were cured by the administration of riboflavin. In addition to these changes alterations elsewhere were described to be prominent manifestations of riboflavin deficiency in the human. Vascularization of the cornea of the experimental animal will be recalled; similar changes as well as glossitis were reported in man (569) and led to the widespread belief that riboflavin deficiency was common in this country. Subsequent studies have failed to sup-

an anemia has likewise been observed. In all of these studies of hematopoiesis the data are too inadequate to permit any general conclusions.

Miscellaneous The fat content of the liver is increased in riboflavin-deficient dogs from a normal of about 15 percent to 40 or 50 percent (554). Similarly, of three deficient swine, two have exhibited on microscopic examination rather large quantities of fat in the liver, and in all, the convoluted tubules of the kidney contained globules which could be stained with Scharlach R (556). The possible lipotropic role of riboflavin must be further studied in these two species.

For the past several years Warkany and his associates (565, 566) have been studying the effects of maternal nutritional deficiencies on their offspring. In rats shortening or absence of the tibia, mandible, fibula, radius, ulna, femur, ribs, fingers, and toes have been observed. Fusion of the ribs and cleft palate may also accompany the above changes, all of which have been shown to be prevented by the inclusion of riboflavin in the maternal diet before or on the 13th day of gestation. After this critical period abnormalities will appear in the newborn whether or not riboflavin is administered (566). No detailed histological studies of tissues other than the bones of these animals have been recorded. It should be pointed out that although the diet first used by Warkany was not a purified one, consisting of cornmeal, wheat gluten sodium chloride, and calcium carbonate, supplemented with crystalline vitamins, conclusive results showing that riboflavin is the protective factor have been obtained on synthetic rations composed of sucrose, casein, fat, salts, and crystalline vitamins.



FIGURE 52 Riboflavin Deficiency and Congenital Malformation. *A* Normal palate of newborn rat in contrast to *B* cleft palate of animal born to riboflavin deficient mother. There is a communication between the nasal cavity, nasopharyngeal ducts and mouth. (Courtesy of Dr. Josef Warkany and *The Munksgaard Memorial Fund Quarterly*.)

Co-enzyme I or coenzyme has been demonstrated in certain tissues from dogs liver, muscle and kidney cortex, however, only in the liver is there any significant decrease when nicotinic acid deficiency is present, it appears unlikely, therefore that a failure of tissue respiration as a result of deficiency in coenzyme is the direct cause of death in the "blacktongue" syndrome, which will shortly be discussed (579) Co-enzyme I (DPN) is known to be active in the dehydrogenation of hexose monophosphate and triose phosphate, Co enzyme II (TPN) is concerned with the dehydrogenation of lactate, malate, glutamate, beta-hydroxybutyrate alcohol and glyceraldehyde diphosphate

Pathological Effects In 1917 Chittenden and Underhill (580) reported a syndrome that had been observed in dogs which were placed on a diet of dried peas cracker meal and cotton-seed oil or lard with or without small amounts of meat This disease was described as follows

"The onset of the pathological symptoms is generally very sudden Usually the first abnormal manifestation is a refusal to eat and examination will reveal nothing to accounting for the loss of appetite The animal lies quietly in its pen and is apathetic After continued refusal to eat for a day or two, the mouth of the dog will present a peculiar and characteristic appearance The inner surface of the cheeks and lips and the edges of the tongue are so covered with pustules as to give the impression of a mass of rotten flesh The odor from these tissues is foul and almost unbearable When stroked with absorbent cotton the mucous lining of the mouth comes away in shreds Intense salivation is present The teeth appear to be solid and normal A bloody diarrhea is present, attempts at defecation being very frequent and resulting in the passage of little more than a bloody fluid of foul odor In some cases the thorax and upper part of the abdomen may contain many pustules half an inch in diameter which are filled with pus organisms No other skin lesions are prominent Death usually results without any particularly striking features

'At autopsy two types of conditions are recognizable In the animals presenting foul mouth and bloody diarrhea the chief interest centers in the lower bowel and rectum which exhibit an intense hemorrhagic appearance With those animals dying rapidly from convulsions the only visible abnormality of the alimentary tract is the presence in the duodenum of one or more large ulcers"

It is concluded that "In the essential features the pathological manifestations described in this investigation closely resemble those which may be observed in human pellagra"

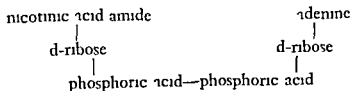
A similar endemic syndrome consisting of anorexia buccal lesions, diarrhea prostration and death was reported in dogs by other observers in this country and received the name blacktongue (581) Goldberger

port such a view, although it is agreed that a few cases of corneal vascularization in the United States do result from riboflavin deficiency. The specificity of cheilosis, as well as the changes in the skin and glossitis, has also been questioned (570), since such lesions may be observed in other deficient states. However, evidence from such regions as China (571, 572, 573) make it apparent that cheilosis, glossitis and corneal vascularization are certainly related to riboflavin deficiency, since such tissue changes may disappear when only this vitamin is administered. However, the possibility that other nutrients play a role must not be overlooked since long term experimental studies of riboflavin deficiency in man have failed to produce any characteristic lesions. The controversial question of riboflavin deficiency in man has been reviewed by others (574-575).

Nicotinic Acid

Historical Although nicotinic acid had been prepared synthetically in 1867 and was subsequently demonstrated to occur in many foodstuffs, its importance in nutrition did not become apparent until 1935. In that year nicotinic acid amide (nicotinamide) was shown to be an important constituent of two already well known co-enzymes. Warburg (576) demonstrated that the 'hydrogen-carrying enzyme of red blood cells' or Co-enzyme II consisted of adenine, pentose, phosphoric acid and nicotinic acid amide. Shortly thereafter Euler and his co-workers (577) showed that cozymase or Co-enzyme I likewise contained the amide of nicotinic acid. When in 1937 Elvehjem and his group (578) demonstrated that nicotinic acid and its amide were effective in curing blacktongue in dogs these materials came into widespread use in the treatment of pellagra in humans. Nicotinic acid is pyridine 3-carboxylic acid.

Biochemical Relationships In the organism ingested nicotinic acid is transformed into the amide which is utilized in turn to form Co-enzymes I and II. These are heat-stable divisible organic substances which function as hydrogen carriers in cellular respiration. The chemical nature of these two co-enzymes is identical except that Co-enzyme I contains one mol less of phosphoric acid than Co-enzyme II. The schematic representation of Co-enzyme I, also called cozymase or diphosphopyridine nucleotide (DPN) is as follows:



imals never exhibit frequent stools (593) The administration of salt solution prolongs life in some of these animals for as long as 180 days However, though all dogs succumb as a result of nicotinic acid deficiency, the clinical course is somewhat different than that of typical blacktongue in this species Furthermore, Handler has shown that although the blacktongue syndrome can be produced with ease when the classical Goldberger cornmeal-diet is fed, purified rations containing even less nicotinic acid lead to a syndrome which appears either reluctantly or not at all (585) At the same time, others (586) were feeding purified diets containing 19% protein to weanling puppies and observing extensive loss of weight, anorexia inflammation of the gums, and erythema of the palate after 14 to 18 days Similar changes could be produced in adult dogs after 30 to 45 days but, however, were not entirely characteristic of blacktongue in dogs Inasmuch as such deficient animals as well as other dogs on similar diets would not consistently respond to nicotinic acid therapy the ration was supplemented with a "folic acid" concentrate derived from solublized liver extract Following the same procedures employed before it was found that the dogs responded uniformly to nicotinic acid therapy and did not tend to relapse Dogs deficient in nicotinic acid but receiving adequate "folic acid" have a lower incidence of buccal lesions, which may indicate that this part of the blacktongue syndrome is not due to nicotinic acid deficiency (588) Inconclusive studies of the blood were reported in these two groups of experiments, this is unfortunate since Handler has shown that dogs on a cornmeal-ration develop a progressive anemia which in some animals is macrocytic in character, the hypothesis that decreased red blood cell formation results from an inadequate supply of cozymase which is needed for the respiration of the immature erythrocyte was proposed (587)

The many inconsistencies in the mode of action of nicotinic acid are gradually being clarified by experiments in dogs (589) rats (590 591) and swine (592) When the former species is placed on a cornmeal-containing diet animals do not gain weight unless fairly large nicotinic acid supplements are administered So too when rats are given a cornmeal ration added nicotinic acid is necessary for good growth Casein supplements do not necessitate the addition of nicotinic acid so too tryptophane has the same effect as added casein When thiamine riboflavin pantothenic acid and choline are furnished together with an optimal amount of dietary protein (26.1 percent) no ill effects can be demonstrated in swine However when the protein content of the nicotinic acid-deficient diet is lowered to 10 percent signs of nutritional deficiency appear Such animals grow poorly their coats are rough and untidy and diarrhea also develops In addition some exhibit a normocytic anemia Chromatolysis of the small dorsal root

(582) had produced pellagra by dietary means in the human and was able, by feeding a similar diet to dogs, to reproduce the black tongue syndrome of Chittenden and Underhill. The disease produced by Goldberger could be prevented by meat or yeast. In the same month and year that Goldberger's paper appeared Underhill and Mendel (599) published a report dealing with a continuation of previous investigations of black tongue at Yale. Their diet which contains meat and yeast led to typical black tongue which could be prevented by adequate amounts of cod liver oil or "carotene." It thus appeared that a strikingly similar syndrome could be produced by a deficiency of two different nutrients. This situation was further studied by Smith et al. (289) who reproduced an identical disease in dogs utilizing both types of diets in order to study the buccal flora of animals manifesting oral lesions, in both groups large numbers of the fuso-spirochetal group of organisms were found. The question of these two types of dietary black tongue if, of course, they are actually different, is certainly a most interesting one and should be re-opened in view of the newer developments shortly to be described.

The pathological changes occurring in the tissues of Goldberger's dogs were studied by Denton (583), who found microscopic lesions in the mucous membranes of the mouth, pharynx, esophagus, intestines, and scrotum. The change was interpreted as a "degenerative process affecting the superficial connective tissue of the mucous and dermal membranes. Changes in the supporting tissues of these mucoid membranes are followed by secondary ones in the epithelium. The lesions tend to terminate in an extensively necrotic and diphtheritic inflammation of the upper alimentary tract." Denton likened to changes in the dogs similar lesions which he had previously observed in human pellagra (584) and which are described on page 171. From the description of lesions in Underhill and Mendel's experiments (599) it would seem that these, too, were similar to the changes just mentioned.

As was noted previously, in 1937 Elvehjem and his group reported that nicotinic acid cured black tongue in dogs (578), an observation which seemed to lay to rest the etiology of this syndrome and the role of nicotinic acid in nutrition. The matter was not so easily settled, however, since several facts led Handler and his associates to question, and properly so, the role of nicotinic acid in the black tongue syndrome. In the first place, no significant differences can be detected between the cozymase content of certain tissues of normal dogs, and animals succumbing with the manifestations of black tongue (579). Furthermore, animals which are about to die of typical black tongue can be saved by the parenteral administration of salt solution. This effect does not appear to be due to a replacement of fluid lost from the gastro-intestinal tract as a result of diarrhea, since some ani-

if any, physiological abnormalities, moreover no morphological disturbances have been reported even when the daily nicotinic acid intake is as low as 3 mg per person per day (596). From a review of Goldberger's work and that of others the conclusion is inescapable and is consistent with the experimental studies already referred to that the disease pellagra results from a diet whose protein is of poor quality whose nicotinic acid content is low (595) and which may contain either an anti-nicotinic substance or a toxic material (769). Therefore, it now seems clear enough that the classical pellagrin with his smooth red tongue diarrhea symmetrical dermatitis and neurological manifestations seldom evidences the effects of a single nutritional deficiency. As in the experimental animal the specific effects of a lack of dietary nicotinic acid alone on the human are not at all clear at the present time.

Pathologically the disease pellagra, is usually characterized by changes in the skin, the tongue and buccal cavity the esophagus colon and nervous tissues, in addition there may or may not be an anemia of macrocytic or microcytic type.

The pathogenesis of the common form of skin lesions which can be ascribed to nicotinic acid deficiency appears to be as follows (584-768) the initial change is found in the superficial portion of the corium where there is rarefaction of the tissue and dilatation of the blood vessels this corresponds to the erythema observed clinically. At the same time changes are seen in the epithelium where there is a disturbance in keratinization. Hyperkeratosis and parakeratosis are prominent and may be detected in skin which appears grossly normal. Acanthosis is found in skin from clinically affected areas. The changes in the corium lead to separation of the epidermis from this structure over extensive areas resulting in bullae. The sebaceous glands may become atrophic while the sweat glands show no alteration. Certain conditions seem to favor the distribution of lesions heat and sunlight (290) as well as vascular stasis scars burns pressure and inflammation (297). All of these factors imply some interference with the normal metabolism of the skin.

Somewhat similar changes are found in the mouth and over the tongue esophagus, and vagina where in all these tissues extensive dilatation of the blood vessels with atrophy of the overlying epithelium may be observed. There may be complete disappearance of the lining epithelium of the buccal cavity with grayish areas of necrosis, these on section appear as ulcers teeming with organisms.

Extensive lesions are found in the colon where the epithelium becomes atrophic and cysts filled with mucous and polymorphonuclear leukocytes are found. Ulcers then appear. It is of interest that the intestinal lesions

ganglion cells has been encountered 4 out of 5 such deficient animals. There is no myelin degeneration in the peripheral nerves however. In animals on low protein intake, but receiving nicotinic acid, growth is impaired, but anemias, diarrhea, and neurological lesions have not been observed. It would be most interesting to administer tryptophane to swine which had been placed on such a nicotinic acid deficient low-protein diet.

The role of tryptophane in nicotinic acid deficiency has been further and fully elucidated by Perlzweig and his associates (594), who have shown that the administration of tryptophane leads to an increased urinary excretion of methyl-nicotinimide so that it would appear that nicotinic acid may be formed *in vivo* from dietary tryptophane. If this be so, a complete re-evaluation of tryptophane and/or nicotinic acid deficiencies in several species is definitely indicated.

The fact that tryptophane may be a precursor of nicotinic acid has not completely solved the blacktongue and pellagra problems however. The relation of cornmeal-containing diets to these syndromes has always been difficult to interpret ever since Goldberger's classic experiments on the production of pellagra in humans and blacktongue in dogs (582). In addition to the fact that the tryptophane content of cornmeal is low, the participation of this foodstuff in an entirely different manner in the production of blacktongue and possibly pellagra has been recently raised by Woolley (769) who has isolated a "pellagrigenic" agent from corn. This material which has been characterized as a pyridine base is a substance whose mode of action is not as yet understood. Whether it is an antagonist or anti-nicotinic acid substance or whether it is a material which is toxic for the organism are possibilities which remain to be settled. The blacktongue and pellagra questions are therefore still not entirely clear. Particularly puzzling is the observation already alluded to, that the mere administration of salt solution prolongs life for many days and as will be seen below rest is also beneficial while sunlight is extremely deleterious in human pellagra.

Nicotinic Acid Deficiency in Man. Ever since 1937, when the signs and symptoms of the pellagra syndrome were shown to be ameliorated by nicotinic acid this substance has been considered by many to be the specific nutrient whose absence is responsible for the characteristic dermatitis, glossitis, and gastro-intestinal disturbances and by some the anemias and cerebral manifestations of this disease as well. Such a supposition was natural because of the dramatic response of many pellagrins to nicotinic acid therapy. In view of the recent developments of our knowledge of nicotinic acid metabolism it is of interest and significant that experimental nicotinic acid deficiency in the human on an otherwise adequate ration has led to few

reproduced in Denton's (584) report are very reminiscent of changes that have been observed in pantothenic acid deficiency in swine (610). We have recently had an opportunity to examine the tissues from a series of pellagrins which came to autopsy at Dule Hospital and were much struck by the similarity of the end stage of the lesions in the human and those which we had observed in swine deficient in pantothenic acid. Alterations in the nervous tissues in pellagra are much less clearly understood. Chromotolysis of ganglion cells in the brain appears to be fairly prominent; however, myelin degeneration has also been reported. The anemia which usually occurs may be microcytic in character, an observation which points further to the concept that pellagra is a multiple deficiency disease is that "folic acid" has a therapeutic effect on this microcytic anemia associated with pellagra.

Now that the metabolism and inter-relationships of nicotinic acid to other nutrients are more clearly understood it will be of interest to re-investigate the entire subject of pellagra in the human and to determine if possible what the specific effects of nicotinic acid deficiency may be in this species. Such a study could doubtless be accomplished by furnishing all of the essential nutrients on a corn-free diet except nicotinic acid and tryptophane, the latter being supplied in varying amounts in a fashion similar to that employed in the experimental study of methionine and cystine deficiencies (page 82).

Pantothenic Acid

Historical In 1933 Williams and his associates (600) announced the isolation of a new growth factor for yeast. Since the factor was an acidic substance which could be demonstrated in a wide variety of living cells Williams named it "pantothenic" (derived from the Greek 'from everywhere') acid. During the next few years work went forward on the occurrence, chemistry, and biological activity of the new compound so that by 1940 Williams' laboratory was able to announce the synthesis and the structure of biologically active pantothenic acid (601, 692).

From the very beginning of his experiments Williams had expressed the belief that pantothenic acid was a water-soluble vitamin. In fact he had suggested in 1933 that the material might be related to vitamin G (600). Not until 1939, however, was pantothenic acid shown to be an antidermatitis factor for the chick. Subbrow and Hitchins (603) then demonstrated that this compound was a growth factor for the rat.

Biological Relationships The function of pantothenic acid in biological

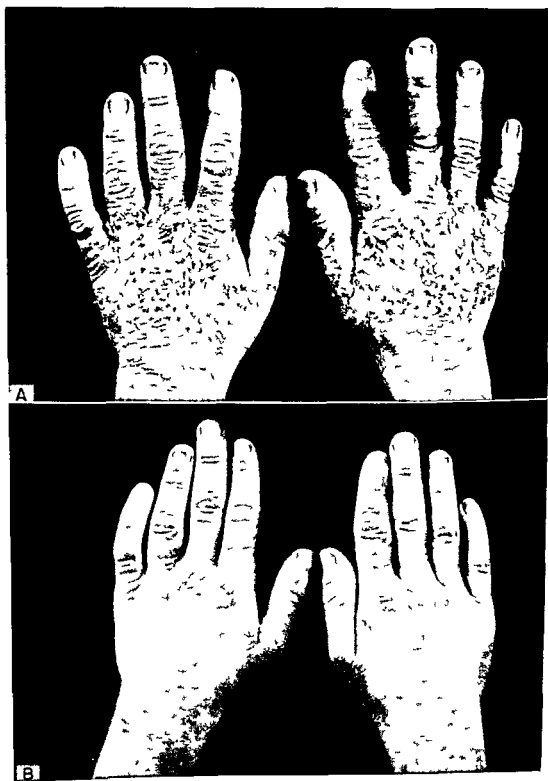


FIGURE 54 Pellagra Dermatitis 4 This 54 year old white male was admitted with an erythematous scaling over the dorsum of the hands diarrhea sore mouth and tongue nausea vomiting and anorexia Diet had been inadequate It was said that the lesions on the hands followed prolonged exposure to a baking oven He was given fluids and a basal diet containing no B vitamins for eight days without improvement On the ninth day ninety mgm of nicotinic acid were administered intravenously There was a steady improvement of the tongue within 24 hrs two weeks later the hands appeared as in B and exposure to a heat lamp failed to provoke a relapse (Courtesy of Dr D T Smith (291) and the *Southern Medical Journal*)

Pathological Effects The indispensability of pantothenic acid has been demonstrated for the rat (606) mouse (772) pig (610) hamster (774-775), cotton rat (773) dog (612) and monkey (296). Microscopic studies of tissues have only been performed on the first three species.

Skin Specific lesions in the skin and hair have been described in the rat. The pathogenesis of the cutaneous changes have been carefully studied by

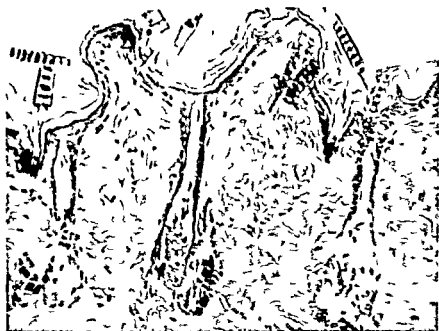


FIGURE 56 Skin Pantothenic Acid Deficiency (606). Section of skin from head of animal which had developed alopecia. There is dilatation of the hair follicles which is characteristic of this deficiency. No changes are found in the sebaceous glands, corium, or epithelium. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan and *Archives of Dermatology and Syphilology*.)

Sullivan and Nicholls (606). There is first a circumocular loss of hair (spectacle alopecia). The hair is also lost in the preauricular region and sides of the snout. This alopecia is sometimes accompanied by scaling. Graying of the hair has been observed in piebald rats, being prominent in the circumocular region, sides of the nose and shoulders. The fur becomes dull and coarse. The graying (achromotrichia) is followed by a generalized scaling and erythematous dermatitis. Occasionally foci of eczematous dermatitis are also observed. Following these epidermal changes the hair begins to fall out.

Microscopically there is moderate hyperkeratosis and acanthosis together with an occasional focus of intraepidermal vesiculation and crusting especially where the small eczematous foci had been noted grossly. As the rats become more depleted in the vitamin, the epidermis approaches its usual thickness or even becomes atrophic. A consistent change is found in the hair

processes is not at all clear. Indirect evidence of its possible role in carbohydrate and lipid metabolism has been advanced. After the administration of a solution of 50% glucose to rabbits, the expected hyperglycemia occurs, however, this is accompanied by a 20-30% reduction in the blood pantothenic acid concentration (604). When the blood lipids of pantothenic acid deficient dogs are studied a decrease in blood cholesterol cholesterol



FIGURE 55. Fur. Pantothenic Acid Deficiency (606). Head of rat which had been on a pantothenic acid deficient diet for about five weeks. Note symmetric graying (achromotrichia) of hair about eyes, ears and nose. This usually spreads to involve the entire head. Later alopecia occurs. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan and the *Archives of Dermatology and Syphilology*.)

esters, lipid phosphorus and total lipids are found (605). Such data may be significant particularly in relation to the fatty livers which have been observed in some species (see below). It must be borne in mind, however, that similar alterations may result from inanition or the absence of other unknown dietary factors.



cytes. In addition cystic glands bordered by flat epithelium and filled with polymorpho nuclear leukocytes can be observed. These lesions may go on to complete ulceration with loss of the entire mucosa. All H and E. A and B $\times 175$; C $\times 150$. (Courtesy of *Bulletin of the Johns Hopkins Hospital*.)

follicles whose lumens become dilated from orifice to bulb. The hair is lost at this time. The changes in the sebaceous glands are usually insignificant until the terminal stages of the deficiency when these structures undergo atrophy. Little cellular infiltration is found in the corium at any time.

Achromotrichia which has been observed in pantothenic acid deficient rats has been corroborated and clarified by Henderson et al. (138). These investigators showed that pantothenic acid is not the only chromotrichia factor. Copper deficiency (page 22), also leads to graying of the hair and evidence for the existence of a third factor para aminobenzoic acid has also been presented (page 206).

In the skin of mice hyperkeratosis, followed by atrophy of the epidermis has been described (609). There is no inflammatory reaction. No mention is made of the condition of the hair follicles or sebaceous glands. Alopecia has been reported by others (772). A "red incrustation" has been described about the mouth of hamsters (774), while the cotton rat exhibits an unspecified dermatitis (612). Alopecia occurs in swine and on microscopic section there is atrophy of the epidermis and loss of hair follicles (610).

Intestinal Tract. Diarrhea is an early and constant symptom of the pantothenic acid-deficient swine (610). The stools frequently contain mucus and sometimes blood. Rectosigmoidoscopic examination reveals a diffusely hyperemic mucosa which is slightly edematous. Bleeding usually occurs as a result of instrumentation. Ulceration has not been detected by this method of examination, however.

At autopsy extensive changes are found in the intestine particularly the colon. Grossly the earliest change is a diffuse hyperemia which has appeared after four weeks of the deficient regimen. The lymphoid follicles are enlarged and on section contain purulent centers. Perforation of these abscesses leads to small ulcers which become confluent. The mesenteric lymph nodes are enlarged. Microscopically there is a change from the normal glandular mucosa made up of large vacuolated cells to a mucosa composed of glands lined by atrophic cells. Leukocytes are found in the lumina of these glands, as well as in the interstitial tissues about them. Although this alteration is a focal one in the early stages it becomes more and more diffuse as time goes on. The glands become dilated with accumulations of cells and the atrophic epithelium becomes more and more flattened. In the lymphoid follicles which also contain glandular prolongations in their centers the same lesions are found. Here following necrosis of the epithelium abscesses develop, these finally rupture leaving large ulcers. Following treat-

FIGURE 57 Intestine Pantothenic Acid Deficiency (610). A Normal epithelium of colon. Note cells filled with mucus lining the glands. There is relatively little cellular infiltration in the interstitial tissues. B Early changes in pantothenic acid deficiency. Note that the cells have become atrophic and have lost their mucus vacuoles. In addition an increased number of cells have appeared in the interstitial tissues. C This shows a more extensive change with beginning ulceration of the superficial portion of the mucosa in which there are many leuko-

ment with calcium pantothenate the ulcers heal and the intestinal wall at autopsy is found to be thickened due to an increased amount of connective tissue apparently a result of the tissue destruction and healing of the previous inflammation. Changes have not been described in other species.

Harderian Gland Another manifestation of pantothenic acid deficiency in rats was first described as 'blood craked whiskers'. The nose and hairs of the snout become covered with a reddish pigment. The source of this material, which is said to be corroporphyrin has been shown to be the Harderian glands. The assumption has been made that the pigment is excreted through the nasolacrimal duct in pantothenic acid-deficient animals, for when the Harderian glands are excised and the animals are then placed on a pantothenic acid deficient regimen the chromodacryorrhea fails to appear (607). Dehydration may also be a factor (615) leading to pigment incrustation of the nose and whiskers of rats.

Nervous Tissues During life pantothenic acid-deficient swine evidence nervous tissue involvement by a disturbance in gait. The initial evidence of this phenomenon is a sudden elevation of one of the limbs from the ground as though it were painful. The gait exhibits a broadening base and a jerky 'goose step' appears. As the deficiency progresses the gait is more and more impaired so that finally the animal is unable to walk at all and lies prostrate.

Microscopic examination (611) reveals that the earliest change is chromatolysis of the dorsal root ganglion cells. These alterations have been observed in animals in which ataxia had not been detected during life. The ganglion cells exhibit the classical signs of disintegration and lysis of the Nissl substance. Cells of all sizes seem equally involved. When the spinal or peripheral nerves of such animals are examined by appropriate techniques, no changes are found in the early stages. However, later that is from the eighth week of the deficiency on loss of myelin and axis cylinder degeneration are found in the brachial and sciatic nerves. As time goes on changes may likewise be observed in the dorsal root fibers and in one animal degeneration of some of the fibers in the dorsal columns has been noted. Chromatolytic cells have been found in the anterior horns and intermediate gray matter of a small number of animals. Using the osmic acid technique which is notoriously unreliable myelin degeneration has been reported to be present in the dorsal columns and pyramidal tracts of the spinal cord and in the peripheral nerves of pantothenic acid deficient mice (609).

Adrenal Gland One of the most interesting manifestations of pantothenic acid deficiency is the appearance of so-called 'hemorrhagic necrosis' of the adrenal glands of rats. The microscopic anatomy has been described by Ashburn (608) but the pathogenesis of the adrenal changes is not at all clear and should be studied more carefully. In deficient rats the following

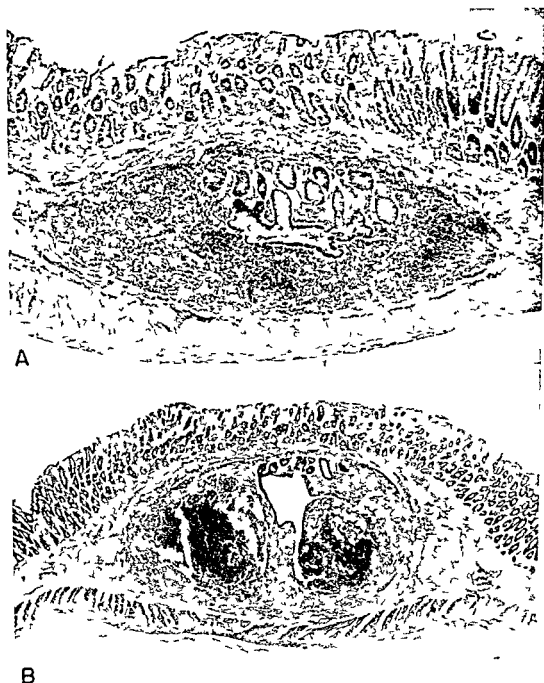


FIGURE 58 Intestine Pantothenic Acid Deficiency (610) Lesions in the solitary follicles of the colon *A* Solitary lymphoid nodule from pantothenic acid deficient pig showing the normal prolongation of glandular elements into this structure. There is beginning leukocytic infiltration of the glands. The lymphoid tissue is somewhat hyperplastic. *B* More advanced lesion which has become two abscesses in the middle of the follicle. Such abscesses grow and suppurate producing ulcers. Both H and E. '55 (Courtesy of *Bulletin of the Johns Hopkins Hospital*)

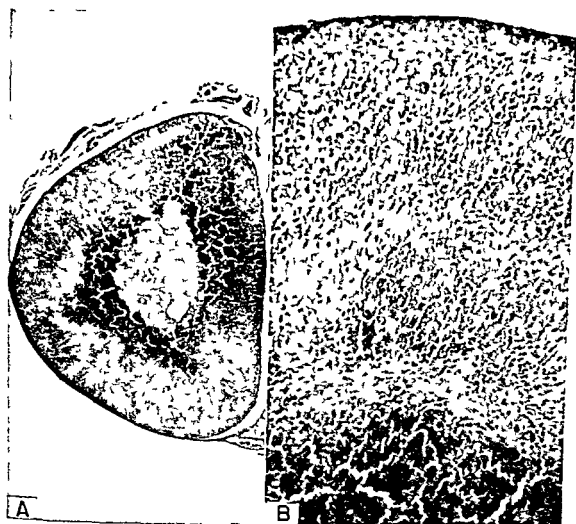


FIGURE 60 Adrenal Pantothenic Acid Deficiency. *A* Low power ($\times 55$) of adrenal from pantothenic acid deficient rat. Note that the medulla and outer cortex appear normal. *B* Higher power ($\times 150$) of the same adrenal. Note that the glomerular and outer fascicular zones are normal in appearance. The inner portion of the latter as well as the outer reticular zone show a focus of fresh necrosis in which there are leukocytes and red blood cells. The inner portion of the reticular zone is not affected. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan.)

tailed studies of the blood vessels have been reported. The changes tend to be localized to the reticular zone, though the inner portion of the fascicular zone may be involved as well. The medullary portion of the gland is said to remain normal. A constant finding is depletion of the lipoid content of the cortical cells; this is probably a consequence of the accompanying inanition; however.

Changes in the adrenals have not been found in other species. The only possible evidence of any alteration in the adrenal glands besides the rat is a dramatic syndrome in dogs described by Schaefer et al. (612). After a variable period depending on the vitamin intake, there appear sudden prostration or coma, tachypnea and tachycardia, convulsive movements of

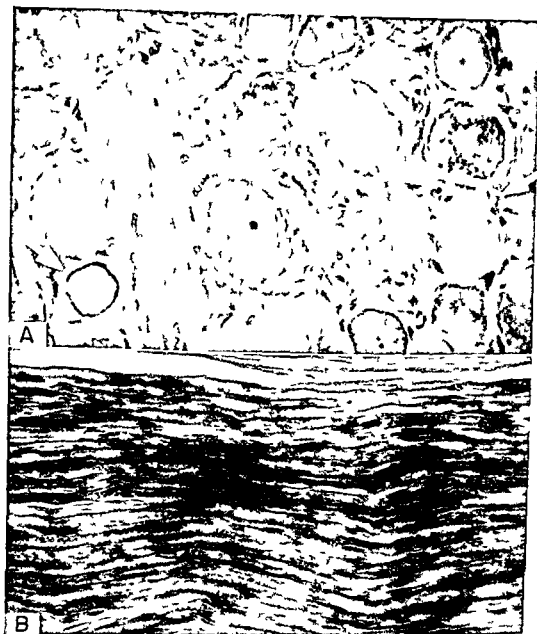


FIGURE 59 Sensory Neuron Pantothenic Acid Deficiency (611) *A* Dorsal root ganglion from lumbar region of pig which had been on a pantothenic acid deficient diet for 33 days. Although ataxia had never been definite suspicious changes had been present for a week before death. Note chromotolysis of two ganglion cells (arrows) which is characterized by loss of Nissl substance in one and a condensation of the chromophilic material about the periphery of the cell in the second instance. *B* Sciatic nerve from the same animal. There is no myelin degeneration. *A*, methylene blue. *B*, modified Weigert stain. Both $\times 500$ reduced 2/5 (Courtesy of the *Journal of Experimental Medicine*)

abnormalities in order of frequency have been noted: hemosiderin deposition, fibrosis, "congestion", hemorrhage, cellular atrophy, necrosis and scarring. The constant appearance of hemosiderin in the glands of animals allowed to succumb and its presence in deficient animals treated with pantothenic acid make it highly probable that the initial lesion is a vascular one. No de-

skin lesions sooner and die in a shorter time than animals whose pyridoxine-deficient diets contain lower amounts (15%) of protein. A reduction in the urinary excretion of creatine and uric acid and elevation of these substances in the blood have been reported (633) in pyridoxine-deficient rats. The relationship of pyridoxine to protein metabolism is further strengthened by the demonstration that this vitamin is necessary for the metabolism of tryptophane. When the urine of pyridoxine-deficient rats is treated with ferric ammonium sulfate, a green pigment appears (634). This substance has been identified as xanthurenic acid, an intermediary in tryptophane metabolism (635). Further studies have shown that pyridoxine is necessary for the metabolism of xanthurenic acid (636), a finding which has been confirmed in swine, in which animals the appearance of xanthurenic acid in the urine can be correlated with the onset of a characteristic anemia, which develops in this species (637). Another pigment which has been found in the acidified urine of pyridoxine-deficient swine has been identified as urorosein (638). In addition to rats and swine, dogs deficient in pyridoxine excrete xanthurenic acid in the urine (639).

Based on investigations utilizing microorganisms, evidence has accumulated that the vitamin B₆ group is converted into codecarboxylase and that this substance is an important physiological form of the vitamin B₆ group. Codecarboxylase functions as the coenzyme of several amino acid decarboxylases. It is of interest that the codecarboxylase content of muscle and liver tissues of rats is dependent on the pyridoxine level of the diet (641). Mention should be made of the possible interrelationship between pyridoxine and the essential fatty acids (747). Skin lesions are said to appear more readily in animals deficient in the latter essentials. Histological studies have not been reported, however.

Pathological Effects. Studies of pyridoxine deficiency have been reported on the rat (642), mouse (772), hamster (774-775), cotton rat (614), dog (647), pig (652) and monkey (296). Prominent changes have been found in the skin, erythropoietic tissues and nervous tissues together with some miscellaneous lesions in other organs.

Skin. In the rat (642) the most prominent site of injury is the skin. Grossly the initial change is an erythema of the dorsa of the paws, most commonly the hind ones. This reddening soon spreads to the plantae and is followed by hyperkeratosis and scaling. The digits next become swollen. Coincident with these changes in the extremities the same process appears in the ears, nose, chin, submental region and upper thorax. The coat appears dull kempt but there is very little alopecia until relatively late in the course of the deficiency.

Microscopically there is hyperkeratosis and acanthosis, together with erythema and edema of the corium. Leukocytes are found infiltrating the

the extremities and vomiting. Death ensues unless treatment is instituted. Chemical studies of the blood have revealed an irregular lowering of glucose and chloride concentrations, together with an increase in non-protein nitrogen values. Gross findings at autopsy have been equivocal, except for light colored livers whose fat contents on chemical analysis range from 34.7 to 55.1 percent in contrast to the normal ranges of 13-17 percent. Microscopic studies have not been reported. In another experiment on dogs, fatty livers and spasticity of the hind quarters have been noted but no examination of the tissues has been reported (613).

Pyridoxine

Historical In 1926 Goldberger and Lillie (623) described a 'pellagra like' condition in rats which had been placed on a diet composed in the main of cornmeal extracted with alcohol. Striking lesions consisting of bilateral symmetric scaly dermatitis appeared and involved the extremities, ears and face, the trunk was only occasionally affected. Since the skin changes could be prevented by autoclaved yeast these investigators assumed that the lesions were caused by deficiency of vitamin B₃ (the heat stable portion of the B group). To Gyorgy and his associates (624, 625, 626) goes the credit for showing that riboflavin (vitamin B₂ or lactoflavin) does not cure this "pellagra-like" dermatitis, and that another factor—vitamin B₆ is necessary. Gyorgy suggested that the new dietary essential should be called the 'rat acrodynia factor' since the lesions of the extremities resembled those observed in human acrodynia, rather than pellagra.

In 1938 a crystalline material was isolated, the hydrochloride of a nitrogenous base (627), this had the properties of Gyorgy's vitamin B₆ and was soon shown to be 2-methyl-2-hydroxy-4,5-dihydro-5-methylpyridine (628).

The synthesis of vitamin B₆ was then announced (629), and Gyorgy (603) suggested that, in accordance with the clinical nature of vitamin B₆ which is a pyridine derivative containing several oxo (methoxy) groups the term 'pyridoxine' appears appropriate.

At the present time there are recognized not one but three members of the vitamin B₆ group. In addition to pyridoxine pyridoxamine and pyridoxal show biological activity similar to pyridoxine at least for microorganisms (631).

Biochemical Relationships There is evidence that pyridoxine plays a role in the metabolism of protein (632). When pyridoxine deficient rats are placed on a high-protein diet (45%–30%) they develop the characteristic

latter layer. The sebaceous glands and hair follicles remain unaffected until late in the disease. Some observers (642) feel that these accessory structures are damaged as a result of superficial secondary infection coincident to epithelial ulceration, others, however, interpret the changes in the sebaceous glands and hair follicles as a late primary effect (317-643). The distribution of the skin lesions, particularly the initial changes in the extremities, has aroused much interest especially in relation to the distribution of the dermatitis in human pellagra. No effects on the dermal lesions have been produced either by excessive sunlight or by denervation (317). It has been reported that the skin changes appear earlier in rats exposed to a cold environment (344), this is likely due to a heightened general metabolism with increased need for the vitamin rather than to any localized change in the extremities.

On a pyridoxine-deficient diet the Syrian hamster is said to develop an 'acroderma like' dermatitis about the mouth (774). Specific skin changes have not been a prominent feature of pyridoxine deficiency in the other species studied.

Erythropoietic Tissues In some rats deficient in pyridoxine an anemia has been found. Disturbances in red blood cell formation can be more definitely demonstrated if such animals are also rendered anemic by bleeding for then a real impairment in red blood cell regeneration develops (645). Because of this relationship of pyridoxine to hemoglobin formation in the rat, the catalase content of tissues from deficient animals has been studied, it will be recalled that this enzyme is an iron-porphyrin compound like heme. No decrease in catalase content is found in the liver, kidney and heart muscle of these animals (646). Such studies should be extended, however, to the dog and swine, since there is a much more marked disturbance in hematopoiesis in these species. In the former (647-648, 649, 650, 651) both puppies and adult animals tend to develop anemia, which is improved by the administration of pyridoxine. However normal red cell and hemoglobin levels are usually not obtained unless liver is given as well. The anemia is characterized as microcytic and hypochromic, elevated plasma iron levels are observed as the blood changes progress. The possible relation of folic acid to this anemia requires study.

In swine an anemia is observed after animals have been on a pyridoxine-deficient regimen from four to six weeks (652). Once significant anemia appears it usually progresses in a few weeks to a severe degree, from a normal of around 8,000,000 red cells to 3,200,000 cells per cubic milliliter of blood. The anemia is primarily microcytic in type. Values of 40 cubic micron or less for the mean corpuscular volume have been observed (normal for swine is about 58 cubic microns). The normal mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration of 33 percent is little if any reduced. Anisocytosis is

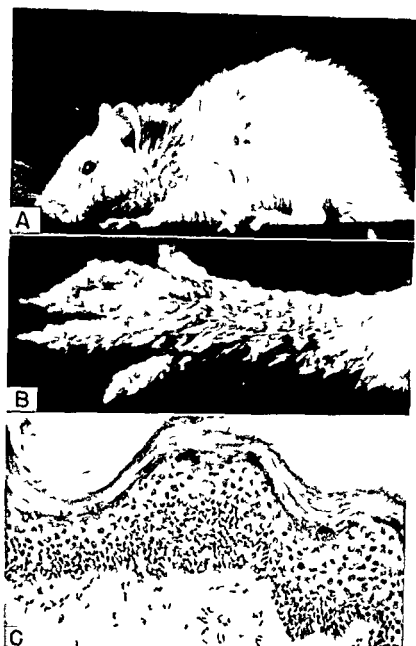


FIGURE 61 Skin Pyridoxine Deficiency (647) *A* Internal appearance of rat after being on a pyridoxine deficient regimen for about six weeks. Note normal appearance of fur in contrast to riboflavin deficient animal Figure 49 page 159. At this time the only change aside from some failure to grow is found in the extremities where scaling *B* is noted. This appears microscopically *C*, and hyperkeratosis and acanthosis with epithelial proliferation just above the basal cell layer. (Courtesy of Dr Maurice Sullivan and *The Journal of Investigative Dermatology*.)

latter layer. The sebaceous glands and hair follicles remain unaffected until late in the disease. Some observers (642) feel that these accessory structures are damaged as a result of superficial secondary infection coincident to epithelial ulceration, others however interpret the changes in the sebaceous glands and hair follicles as a late primary effect (317-643). The distribution of the skin lesions, particularly the initial changes in the extremities, has aroused much interest especially in relation to the distribution of the dermatitis in human pellagra. No effects on the dermal lesions have been produced either by excessive sunlight or by denervation (317). It has been reported that the skin changes appear earlier in rats exposed to a cold environment (344), this is likely due to a heightened general metabolism with increased need for the vitamin rather than to any localized change in the extremities.

On a pyridoxine-deficient diet the Syrian hamster is said to develop an 'acrodynia-like' dermatitis about the mouth (774). Specific skin changes have not been a prominent feature of pyridoxine deficiency in the other species studied.

Erythropoietic Tissues. In some rats deficient in pyridoxine an anemia has been found. Disturbances in red blood cell formation can be more definitely demonstrated if such animals are also rendered anemic by bleeding for then a real impairment in red blood cell regeneration develops (645). Because of this relationship of pyridoxine to hemoglobin formation in the rat, the catalase content of tissues from deficient animals has been studied, it will be recalled that this enzyme is an iron-porphyrin compound like heme. No decrease in catalase content is found in the liver, kidney, and heart muscle of these animals (646). Such studies should be extended however, to the dog and swine since there is a much more marked disturbance in hematopoiesis in these species. In the former (647-648-649-650, 651) both puppies and adult animals tend to develop anemia which is improved by the administration of pyridoxine. However normal red cell and hemoglobin levels are usually not obtained unless liver is given as well. The anemia is characterized as microcytic and hypochromic, elevated plasma iron levels are observed as the blood changes progress. The possible relation of folic acid to this anemia requires study.

In swine an anemia is observed after animals have been on a pyridoxine-deficient regimen from four to six weeks (652). Once significant anemia appears it usually progresses in a few weeks to a severe degree, from a normal of around 8,000,000 red cells to 3,200,000 cells per cubic milliliter of blood. The anemia is primarily microcytic in type. Values of 40 cubic micron or less for the mean corpuscular volume have been observed (normal for swine is about 58 cubic microns). The normal mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration of 33 percent is little if any reduced. Anisocytosis is

marked, and there is an irregular reticulocytosis. There is no increase in the icterus index or any increased resistance to hemolysis in hypotonic saline solution. Following treatment with pyridoxine, an immediate reticulocyte response (as high as 30%) accompanied by an increase in red blood cells occurs, the cells then return to their normal size. As in the dog, pyridoxine

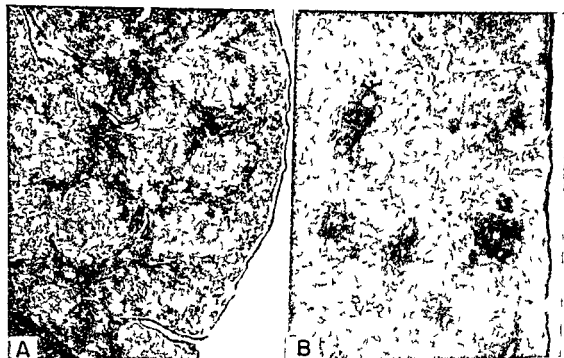


FIGURE 67. Spleen. Pyridoxine Deficiency. *A*, Section of spleen from a pig sacrificed after being on a pyridoxine deficient diet for 139 days. Significant anemia developed in 47 days and maximal anemia was present eight days before death. RBC 3,630,000; MCV 43 cu μ ; MCHC 24 per cent (see text for normal values). The bone marrow was hyperplastic and there was hemosiderosis of this tissue as well as the liver. Characteristic lesions were found in the sensory neuron. This section illustrates the extensive deposition of hemosiderin pigment in the pulp capsule and trabeculae. Note that the Malpighian bodies are spared and compare with *B*, where the Malpighian bodies stand out as darker groups of cells from the lighter staining surrounding pulp. No pigment is seen in this pulp; there is however some pigment in the capsule. This animal had been severely anemic at one time. Following treatment with pyridoxine there was a sharp reticulocyte response and the blood returned to normal. At autopsy no hemosiderin was found in the bone marrow, liver, or spleen save for the remnant of the pigment which is seen in the capsule. Both Prussian blue, fuchsin stain $\times 15$.

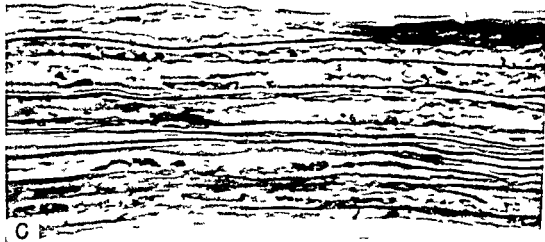
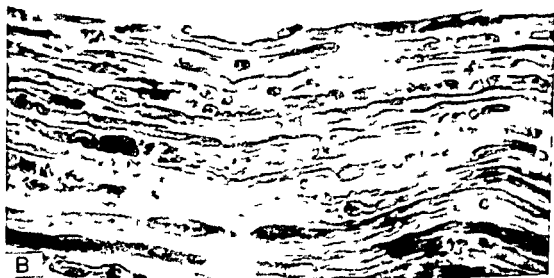
does not completely relieve the anemia, it must be assumed that other unknown factors possibly folic acid are necessary for hematopoiesis in swine. As pyridoxine anemia develops there is a rise in serum iron content to values as high as 300 micrograms per 100 cc. Upon treatment the serum iron concentration falls to the normal of 100 micrograms or less.

During the course of anemia in swine an extensive deposition of iron pigment (Prussian blue reaction) is found in the liver, spleen, and bone marrow. This pigment, presumably hemosiderin, occurs both intra- and extracellularly in the splenic pulp and in the capsule and trabeculae as well

Virtually no pigment is found in the Malpighian bodies. The Kupffer cells of the liver contain pigment, and in those animals dying with severe anemia the periportal cells of the liver lobule are also filled with iron-staining material. Macrophages in the bone marrow of anemic animals are loaded with pigment. None has been observed in the renal tubular epithelium. The bone marrow of anemic animals is hyperplastic and contains numerous "blast" cells, as well as nucleated red blood cells. Treatment with pyridoxine diminishes the amount of pigment in the spleen, liver, and bone marrow, the duration of treatment can be correlated with the amount of pigment remaining in the splenic pulp. Some iron-staining material remains in the capsule and trabeculae, however, even after prolonged therapy. In animals receiving adequate pyridoxine there is virtually no bone marrow hyperplasia. Pyridoxine anemia has been compared with that produced by phenylhydrazine and iron deficiency and shown not to result from blood destruction, since elevated serum bilirubin and increased excretion of urobilinogen in the urine and feces and of porphyrin in the urine, noted in phenylhydrazine hemolytic anemia are not observed in pyridoxine-deficient animals (653). It is concluded that the ferremia and hemosiderosis are due to the continual absorption or decreased excretion of iron at a time when its utilization for hemoglobin is at a minimum, and when the iron content of the tissues is abundant. Elevated serum iron levels and hemosiderosis of the tissues do not occur in animals deficient in both iron and pyridoxine.

Nervous Tissue Epileptiform fits lasting several minutes were first described in pyridoxine-deficient rats by Chick as follows (654): "1) A violent stage in which the rat would suddenly rush about wildly with protruding eyes, jumping to the floor of the room if not restrained and leaping up into the air sometimes uttering cries, this stage usually lasted less than 30 seconds. In a few instances the eyes became suffused with blood, which drained away through the nasolachrymal ducts. Occasionally the rat urinated during the fit and on one occasion vomiting of stomach contents was observed. 2) A helpless condition in which there were muscular twitchings and tonic spasms while the rat lay helpless. Sometimes the digits of one of the forepaws became clasped with those of the hind paw of the same side. 3) A comatose condition when the rat sometimes became unconscious with a slowed and weakened heartbeat and absence of corneal reflex. 4) Gradual recovery control being regained first of the forepart of the body and later of the hind limbs."

Similar seizures have been observed in deficient puppies but are apparently uncommon in adult dogs. Pyridoxine-deficient swine show two manifestations of neurological damage during life: convulsions and ataxia. Convulsions may appear as early as the fourth week of deficiency, but more usually a little later—from the seventh to the twelfth week. As many as three



or four attacks per day have been observed, and the "fits" occur until death ensues unless treatment with pyridoxine is initiated. Such "fits" resemble those seen in the "grand mal" of human epilepsy. Attacks of shorter duration and resembling human "petit mal" have also been observed. Preceding the convulsion the animal is usually excited and "nervous". The pattern

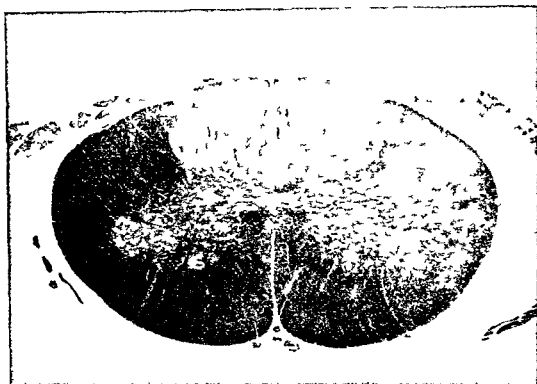


FIGURE 64 Spinal Cord Pyridoxine Deficiency. Lumbar cord of same animal shown in preceding Figure. Note degeneration of the dorsal columns in addition compare the differences in staining of the dorsal and ventral roots; the former are much lighter than the latter indicating myelin degeneration. $\times 30$ reduced 2/5. (Courtesy of the *Journal of Experimental Medicine*.)

of the convulsion is as follows: The pig lay on its side; all four limbs and the muscles of the body jerked rapidly; the head was held in extension; the eyes shut or turned upward; and saliva drooled from the mouth. After several minutes the spasmodic muscular contractions ceased and a stage of stupor followed which also lasted several minutes. Occasionally a gurgling sound could be heard. When the stupor was over, the pig would try to get

← FIGURE 63 Sensory Neuron Pyridoxine Deficiency (611). A Dorsal root ganglion cells (methylene blue stain) from lumbar region from pig which had been on a pyridoxine deficient diet for 101 days. Definite ataxia had been present for the past twenty days. Note absence of chromatolysis (compare with Figure A). The cells are somewhat atrophic and occasional shrunken necrotic ones may be found. B Sciatic nerve (modified Weigert stain) from same pig to show extensive degeneration of the myelin sheaths. C Sciatic nerve (Bodian silver stain) which shows degeneration and fragmentation of the axis cylinders. All $\times 500$ reduced 2/5. (Courtesy of the *Journal of Experimental Medicine*.)

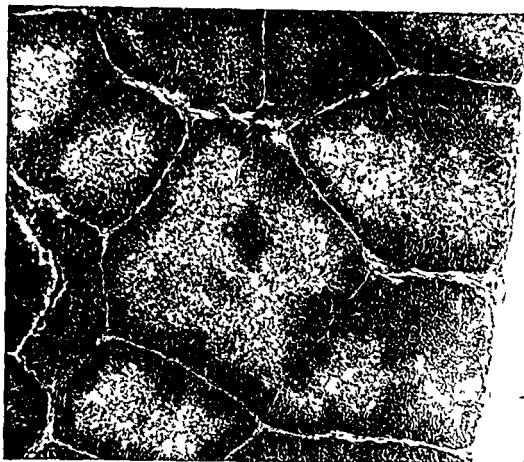


FIGURE 65 Liver Pyridoxine Deficiency. Section of liver from pig, which had been on a pyridoxine deficient diet for 113 days and was then sacrificed. The animal had developed severe anemia and convulsions together with evidence of neurological involvement. There is extensive fatty infiltration of the central portion of the liver lobules and deposition of hemosiderin pigment about the peripheral portion which accounts for the dark staining in this region. The liver of the pig is of course normally lobulated. Prussian blue-fuchsin stain $\times 40$.

up, and, when it finally succeeded it would proceed in a staggering dazed fashion" (655)

An ataxia which has been observed as early as the third week, manifests itself as a slightly high lift of the hind limbs accompanied by swaying of the hind quarters while walking. There is a broad base, the legs fold under, turning in one direction or another with the result that the pig stumbles and falls. The forelegs develop similar incoordination, and as the deficiency progresses, the animal becomes completely incapacitated.

When the behavior during life is compared with the anatomical changes found at autopsy, it appears that physiological disturbances may be present before morphological alterations can be demonstrated. The initial morphological change (611) is demyelination of the peripheral nerves (brachial and sciatic). This is characterized by the appearance of small droplets of neutral fat in sections stained with Schirlich R and by vacuoles and dark

deposits in Weigert preparations. Silver stains to demonstrate axis cylinders reveal questionable degeneration at this stage. No alterations are detected in the dorsal-root ganglion cells. As time goes on, myelin degeneration becomes more marked and there is involvement of the dorsal-root fibers and dorsal columns of the spinal cord. Definite and marked axis cylinder degeneration is also found. Despite these changes in the peripheral and central portions of the sensory neuron, no chromatolytic alterations are encountered in the cell body. Many cells become atrophic and in time, necrotic, but without the widespread dissolution of Nissl granules which is seen in pantothenic acid deficiency in swine (611).

Miscellaneous Lesions. By chemical analysis an increased fat content of the liver of pyridoxine-deficient rats (656) has been reported, and a similar change has been observed histologically in swine (652). In the latter species the fat is distributed in the central areas, but in animals extremely deficient in pyridoxine lipid accumulation also reaches the mid-zonal region. In such animals fatty livers have been observed in the presence of adequate dietary choline and inositol. Three of four dogs deficient in pyridoxine have been reported to develop signs of cardiac insufficiency and die suddenly (650). When adequate quantities of p-dimethylaminoazobenzene (butter yellow) are administered to rats, carcinoma of the liver develops. The incidence of tumor formation may be modified by diet. A reduction in the amount of dietary pyridoxine prevents the development of carcinoma. In this experiment (657) a caloric effect can be ruled out since the pyridoxine-deficient animals and their controls consume the same amounts of food. The effect of pyridoxine on sarcoma 180, a transplantable tumor in mice, has been studied; the removal of pyridoxine from the diet inhibits the growth of the tumor even though, as in the rat experiments, the caloric intake is the same (658).

Pyridoxine Deficiency in Man. A syndrome characterized by "extreme nervousness, insomnia, irritability, abdominal pain, weakness, and difficulty in walking" has been observed in a group of patients by Spies et al. When pyridoxine is administered such symptoms disappear while nicotinic acid, riboflavin, and thiamine have no therapeutic effect (659, 660). Pyridoxine has been claimed to be specific in a host of other clinical syndromes. The evidence at hand, however, is not convincing enough to warrant further consideration save that this vitamin appears to cure certain cases of cheilosis in which it appears to have the same curative powers as riboflavin does in others (292).

Choline

Historical The nutritional importance of choline first became apparent in 1932 when Hershey fed lecithin to depancreatized dogs which had been maintained on insulin (661). The rationale for this procedure was to determine whether the fatty liver encountered in such experimental animals could be prevented by the administration of a phospholipid. Lecithin did just this and was further shown to prevent fatty livers resulting from the feeding of high fat diets to rats (662). The active principle of lecithin was soon demonstrated to be choline (663).

The effect of choline deficiency on the kidney was first described by Griffith and Wade (664) in 1939 and its relationship to hepatic damage was soon demonstrated by Gyorgy and Goldblatt (665). In the meantime Du Vigneaud (666) had elucidated the inter-relationship of choline, methionine, and cystine and the phenomenon of transmethylation.

Biochemical Relationships Choline is, of course, an important constituent of the phospholipid, lecithin. The metabolism of choline is intimately related to that of the indispensable sulfur-containing amino acid methionine. When dietary choline is absent or inadequate, sufficient quantities may be formed from methionine *in vivo* to insure life (667), however, apparently not enough is synthesized to prevent certain physiological and pathological alterations in the animal organism. Choline is formed *in vivo* from the combination of ethanolamine and methyl groups donated by methionine (668). ethanolamine is derived from dietary serine and glycine (669).

Metabolic studies of the liver and kidneys of rats have clarified the function of choline in the organism. Ingested choline is utilized in the synthesis of certain substances which are necessary for fat transport. When choline is omitted from the diet phospholipid turnover is reduced, for instance radioactive phosphorus (P^{32}) has been utilized to show that choline stimulates phospholipid turnover in the liver and kidney, an important physiological process which must be carried on in certain organs, particularly the kidney, during critical periods of growth (670). It is assumed that the renal lesions which have been described in young rats result from a deficiency in phospholipid turnover when the needs are greatest for instance during the fourth and fifth weeks of life. Choline also enhances the transportation of fatty acids from the liver to the fat depots, a process which is slowed down in choline-deficient animals (671). Like methionine, choline may act as a methyl donor. When homocystine is fed to methionine-deficient rats, choline furnishes methyl groups to synthesize methionine, a laboratory demonstration of a reaction which does not ordinarily occur in

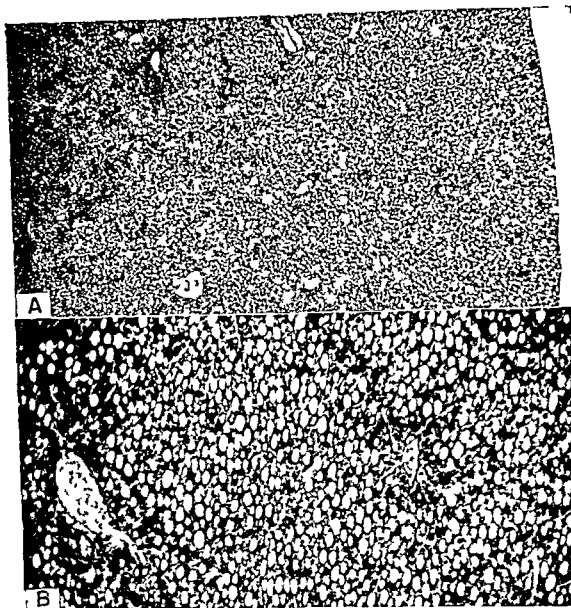


FIGURE 66 Liver Choline Deficiency *A* Low power ($\times 40$) of liver from a rat placed on a low protein (five percent) high fat (thirty percent) choline deficient diet. This animal had been on this regimen for about two months. Virtually every cell is distended with fat globules. *B* Higher power ($\times 150$) of same section shows a periportal space and central vein to indicate the diffuse nature of the fatty infiltration. H and E.

the organism (271). Choline normally furnishes methyl groups to guanidoacetic acid for the formation of creatine (666).

Pathological Effects As already noted, the chief effects of choline deficiency are found in the liver and kidney. Morphologic changes in the former tissues have been described in the rat, dog, and pig. When young growing rats are placed on a choline-deficient low protein-high fat diet, fatty infiltration of the liver rapidly occurs (665, 672, 673, 674), small sudanophilic droplets accumulate in the hepatic cells and coalesce so that

such cells become greatly distended with their nuclei pushed to one side in less than a week. As others have pointed out (674) it seems quite reasonable to assume that when enough intracellular fat has accumulated the physical organization of the cell is so disrupted that metabolic changes and even necrosis may be expected to occur. The latter lead to the second manifestation of choline deficiency in the liver—widespread scarring. This



FIGURE 67. Liver Choline Deficiency. This rat had been on a low protein (five percent) high fat (22 percent) diet for over three months. Note extensive fatty infiltration similar to that in the preceding Figure. In addition there is scarring which divides the tissue up into lobules which have little relation to the normal architecture. These connective tissue septa contain deposits of an acid fast pigment, ceroid. H and E, $\times 150$. (Courtesy of Dr. Philip Handler and Dr. I. N. Dubin.)

the fatty change is a prerequisite for necrosis is indicated by the fact that if food intake is restricted or if dietary thiamine is deprived, fat fails to appear in the liver, necrosis and scarring are also not found. Grossly the chronic choline-deficient liver is pale yellow with a finely granular surface. Microscopic examination reveals that the tissue is separated into irregular lobules by bands of connective tissue of varying width. Usually the intact hepatic cells are infiltrated with fat.

The microscopic appearance of both the rat's and dog's liver (675, 676) would lead one to assume that a disturbance in hepatic function might be present. Experiments in the latter species show this to be the case.

In puppies choline deficiency may result in death within three weeks. Severe fatty infiltration of the liver is the only prominent manifestation of such a deficient state, livers from these animals may contain over 50 percent of lipid on a dry weight basis, which is over twice that of control animals. When bromsulfalein is administered, the dye remains in the plasma longer than normal. So too the prothrombin time is increased, and there is rise in the level of serum phosphatase. These manifestations of deranged liver function can be reversed in five to ten days if choline is administered in adequate amounts (677).

Morphologic observations of hepatic changes which follow choline therapy are inadequate. In the rat the color of the organ changes from yellow to dark reddish brown, and the size decreases. On microscopic section a reduction in the amount of fat is observed in the cells, in addition there is evidence of regeneration of hepatic cells and large, bizarre structures containing several nuclei may be observed. As might be expected, no disappearance of the connective tissue is found at least after 6 weeks of therapy (678).

The type of diet used has an effect on the outcome of such experiments. Rations high in fat (20%) and low in protein content (4-5%) with starch as the source of carbohydrate and supplemented with cystine and cholesterol seem to be most suitable for the production of cirrhosis (674). It should be pointed out that fat deposition need not unalterably lead to necrosis, as large amounts may be found by chemical analysis in livers without necrosis as are found in those with degenerated cells. The inclusion of 0.1 percent thiouracil protects the liver against the effects of a high cystine, low casein (8%) diet (688), the reason for this is not clear.

During the development of our knowledge of the relationship of choline and the sulphur-containing amino acids to one another and to morphological changes in the liver several groups of investigators described and studied a peculiar pigment which occurs in and about the hepatic cells of rats on choline deficient diets. Because of its waxy appearance this substance was named 'ceroid' (679). An acid fast hyaline-like material ceroid has basophilic properties, gives a negative iron reaction, is not dissolved by lipid solvents, and exhibits a positive oxidase reaction. In contradistinction to vitamin A its fluorescence does not fade when tissue sections are viewed under ultra-violet light (680). A number of investigators have studied the production and properties of ceroid thinking it might be related in some way to the development of hepatic damage. It was finally shown, however, that by modifying the diet cirrhosis will appear without a concomitant deposition of ceroid (681). A similar or even identical material is seen in the tissues of vitamin E deficient animals especially when large amounts of cod liver oil are administered (430). It is of interest that many of the diets which

were utilized to study cirrhosis and ceroid formation contained cod liver oil and little vitamin E. Whether ceroid is a metabolic artefact or not awaits further investigation.

Renal lesions in rats first described by Griffith and Wade have been inadequately studied by other investigators as well (615, 682). When young rats are placed on a choline-deficient diet evidence of damage to the kidney



FIGURE 68. Choline Deficiency. Cortex of kidney from a weanling rat which had been on a choline-deficient diet for eight days. There is an increased thickening of the capsule due to distention by red blood cells. Note the focus of necrotic tubules just beneath the capsule. The glomeruli are not remarkable. The lumens of many tubules contain hyaline casts. $\times 150$ (Courtesy of Dr. Phillip Handler.)

appears in about 10 days. It must be stressed, however, that for reasons not entirely clear the development of renal lesions is not at all uniform. Grossly the affected kidneys are enlarged and have a mottled reddish color. On section the cortex is either diffusely dark red or a mottled red and yellow which contrasts sharply with the underlying grayish medulla. Microscopically there is great dilatation of the peripheral cortical vessels, in particular, those of the capsule. Hemorrhage may result from tearing of the capsular vessels due to swelling of the underlying renal parenchyma. An even more prominent feature is necrosis of the renal tubular epithelium. In severe cases all of these structures may be necrotic, in less damaged kidneys, the cells merely show cloudy swelling, colloid droplets, and pyknotic nuclei. No stains for fat have been reported although chemical analyses have demonstrated an in-

crease in the fat content of kidneys from choline-deficient animals. An attempt has been made to study the histochemical distribution of alkaline and acid phosphatase in the kidney of choline-deficient rats (683). A decrease in alkaline phosphatase does not appear until there is well marked necrosis of the tubular epithelial cells. This change therefore, does not help in explaining the pathogenesis of the renal changes.

The interstitial tissues are spread apart by dilated vessels a feature which depends on the amount of tubular necrosis and its duration. Very little hemorrhage is present in the interstitial tissues and no red blood cells have been detected in the lumens of the tubules. Pink-staining hyaline casts are plentiful however. At times the glomerular tufts are dilated and the lining epithelial cells are swollen. The cells of the collecting tubules appear to be normal. The severity of the damage apparently determines whether an animal will or will not recover since many rats do not succumb even though continued on the choline-deficient diet. In such animals the tubular epithelium regenerates to a low cuboidal type, calcification also occurs and many of the tubules become dilated. When large areas of necrosis have resulted scars may be observed. In such recovered organs connective tissue proliferation in the capsule is noted so that grossly the organs have a 'frosted' appearance.

As has been mentioned attempts to produce renal changes by means of choline deficiency in the rat at least do not yield consistent results. Some of the factors which have an important bearing on the outcome have been studied. Besides the content of methionine in the ration the cystine and fat composition of the diet must be mentioned. Cystine has been noted to have a deleterious effect on choline-deficient animals (684-687). The reason for this is not entirely clear although it has been suggested that this amino acid promotes better growth and hence an increased requirement for choline. Because of the relationship of choline-containing phospholipids to fat transport high-fat diets and variations in the saturation in the fat also have a devastating effect on choline-deficient animals (685). The protein content of the diet is another important factor when the cystine and fat content do not vary (686). Protein (casein) levels of 15% are optimal for the production of hemorrhagic changes in the kidney and when dietary protein is reduced hemorrhages appear less readily. However at a level of 6 percent renal lesions do not appear in the usual 10 days, but may take 40 to 50 days to present themselves. The type of dietary carbohydrate is also of importance since lesions develop when sucrose glucose and starch are the source of carbohydrate in the diet while when lactose and galactose are substituted lesions do not appear (686). In like manner the inclusion of 40 mg percent atabrine in a deficient diet protects against kidney lesions but seems to have no lipotropic action on the liver although histological studies have not been carried out (689).

were utilized to study cirrhosis and ceroid formation contained cod liver oil and little vitamin I. Whether ceroid is a metabolic artefact or not awaits further investigation.

Renal lesions in rats first described by Griffith and Wade, have been inadequately studied by other investigators as well (615, 682). When young rats are placed on a choline-deficient diet, evidence of damage to the kidney



FIGURE 68. Choline Deficiency. Cortex of kidney from a weanling rat which had been on a choline deficient diet for eight days. There is an increased thickening of the capsule due to distention by red blood cells. Note the focus of necrotic tubules just beneath the capsule. The glomeruli are not remarkable. The lumens of many tubules contain hyaline casts. $\times 150$ (Courtesy of Dr. Phillip Handler.)

appears in about 10 days. It must be stressed, however, that for reasons not entirely clear, the development of renal lesions is not at all uniform. Grossly the affected kidneys are enlarged and have a mottled reddish color. On section the cortex is either diffusely dark red or a mottled red and yellow which contrasts sharply with the underlying grayish medulla. Microscopically there is great dilatation of the peripheral cortical vessels, in particular those of the capsule. Hemorrhage may result from tearing of the capsular vessels due to swelling of the underlying renal parenchyma. An even more prominent feature is necrosis of the renal tubular epithelium. In severe cases all of these structures may be necrotic, in less damaged kidneys, the cells merely show cloudy swelling, colloid droplets and pycnotic nuclei. No stains for fat have been reported although chemical analyses have demonstrated an in-

had called attention to the deleterious effects which the feeding of unheated egg white produce in experimental animals. To Boas (692) must go the credit for postulating in 1927 that egg white contains a "toxic" substance which is rendered innocuous by including in the diet certain food substances containing a protective 'factor'. Animals fed egg white develop dermatitis, abnormal kangaroo-like posture and spasticity of the extremities. During the 10 years following Boas' publication a number of investigators studied the syndrome of egg white injury and Gvoryn (693), in particular, described the histological changes in the skin and demonstrated a curative factor from certain foodstuffs, this factor was designated vitamin H. In the meantime workers in other fields were providing information which was to clarify the problem. A new factor named coenzyme R had been described as an essential for legume nodule bacteria in 1933 (694). A little later a crystalline material Bios II, was shown to be necessary for the growth of yeast cells (695). In 1939 the suggestion was made that coenzyme R and Bios II were identical (696) and a year later du Vigneaud and his associates (697) proved that Gvoryn's vitamin H, coenzyme R and Bios II were one and the same substance. In 1942 du Vigneaud (698) announced the structure of biotin, an active substance was soon synthesized (699) and was found to elicit the same physiological responses as the natural product.

While the structure of this vitamin was being elucidated an active anti-biotin principle from egg white was crystallized, this material is called avidin (700, 701).

Biochemical Relationships Little is known of the functions of biotin in the animal organism. The possible relationship to the metabolism of lactate and pyruvate has been recently advanced when liver slices from biotin deficient animals are studied *in vitro* they exhibit a 25 to 35 percent increase in the disappearance of lactate when the biotin is added to the medium (702). Whether this is an effect of inanition remains to be determined.

Pathological Effects Biotin has been shown to be a dietary essential for the rat, the mouse, the hamster, dog and monkey. Skin lesions have been described in several of these species, in addition studies of the nervous tissues and muscles have been made. The role of biotin in tumor formation has also been investigated.

Skin Sullivan and Nichols (703) have placed young rats on a diet containing 30 percent dried egg white and find that gross and microscopic cutaneous lesions develop after 3 to 5 weeks. The initial change is generalized erythema, the coat becomes roughened and loses its luster. A generalized scaling follows which is accompanied by a symmetrical alopecia first developing over the chin, neck, and anterior portion of the venter and spreading to the rest of the body surface. Such rats which are covered with brown greasy scales, are not particularly pleasant sights.

Certain other manifestations of choline deficiency should be mentioned. Hemorrhages may be encountered in the eyes of choline-deficient rats (690), free blood is found between the interior limiting membrane of the vitreous and the crystalline lens and the ciliary process is swollen and hemorrhagic. Hemorrhages may also appear in the glomerular layer of the adrenal glands and necrosis of the cortical cells has been sometimes noted as well. So too foci of hemorrhage and necrosis of muscle fibers have been observed in the heart, while extensive intracranial hemorrhages have been described in some of the young born to choline deficient females (213) although vitamin K deficiency was not ruled out in this connection. In view of the fact that increased prothrombin times have been observed in choline deficient dogs (675) a possible explanation of the hemorrhages particularly those in the kidney of the rat may be due to lowered prothrombin values in the blood resulting from damage to the liver as a result of fatty infiltration.

Choline Deficiency in Man Excessive fat accumulation in the liver is not uncommon at autopsy. In the absence of obstruction of the pancreatic ducts the question arises as to whether such fatty infiltration is related to any dietary factors. It has been known of course that simple starvation leads to abnormal accumulation of fat in the liver. With the development of our knowledge of the hepatic lipotropic action of methionine and/or choline, the possibility that fatty livers in the human might result from deficiencies in these factors has received much interest. These materials in addition to the B group of vitamins are being used clinically in the treatment of liver disease.

It is doubtful whether choline deficiency *per se* can occur in man. However, it is not unlikely that a deficiency of this material and its precursor methionine can result when dietary protein is inadequate. In the chronic alcoholic whose daily caloric requirements may be satisfied by 500 cc of alcohol such a situation could easily arise. It is not surprising that choline and its precursor methionine in the form of high protein intake with additional vitamins of the B group are being used to treat fatty liver and cirrhosis especially in alcoholics and those with poor dietary histories (753). One interesting report has appeared dealing with another form of choline therapy (691). This was a case of Addisonian pernicious anemia refractory to liver therapy. Liver biopsy proved that the patient had an extremely fatty liver. Intravenous choline chloride returned the liver and blood picture to normal.

Biotin

Historical Knowledge of biotin developed along three independent lines of research. Since the beginning of the century a number of investigators

Biotin deficient hamsters (705) develop a dermatitis at the corners of the mouth, such lesions spread more excessively as the deficiency progresses. Alopecia occurs in biotin deficient mice (780). Dermatitis and alopecia have been described in rabbits fed a diet containing excessive amounts of egg white (706). In monkeys (707) rendered acutely deficient in biotin, a scaling dermatitis has been described, this appears most conspicuously over the face, arms and legs. In more chronically deficient animals, the hair becomes thin and loses its color. In none of these last four species have histological studies been reported.

Nervous Tissues and Muscles Because of the peculiar attitude and gait of biotin-deficient rats the nervous tissues and muscles of deficient animals have been studied (704). Careful examinations of the fore brain, the hind brain, the spinal cord, posterior root ganglia and sciatic nerve have failed to reveal any abnormality. Studies of muscle tissues however have demonstrated atrophy, necrosis of fibers, and an increase in sarcolemma nuclei similar to the changes which are observed in alpha-tocopherol deficiency. When large doses of the latter vitamin were added to the diet of a second group of animals only atrophy was found so that it appears that biotin is not the etiological factor responsible for the changes described in the first series of animals. A single myographic reading following stimulation of the sciatic nerve gave no evidence of repetitive discharge, this would indicate that the rigidity which is observed is not myotonic in origin. In view of the physiological changes which appear in the muscle, it is of interest to note that higher creatine contents of sciatic muscle from deficient animals have been noted than in controls, it is unfortunate however, that comparison was not made with inanition controls (708). Studies of other tissues of biotin deficient rats have not revealed any other significant morphological changes, there is however some evidence that biotin deficiency leads to an anemia in dogs (711) but not rats (712).

Tumors When biotin is added to diets which ordinarily protect rats from developing hepatic tumors produced by feeding, a decrease in the protective value of the diet occurs (710). In other words biotin appears to act as an anti inhibitor of the growth of this type of neoplasm in rats. As might be expected this finding has led to the therapy of human cancer with avidin but thus far the administration of egg white or avidin to humans with malignant tumors has not met with encouraging results.

Biotin Deficiency in Man Biotin deficiency has been produced in experimental subjects to whom 200 grams of dehydrated egg-white was fed daily (713). After three to four weeks on such a diet all four volunteers developed a fine, non puritic scaling of the skin. Although the dietary regimen was maintained the skin lesions disappeared after a time. One subject developed a maculosquamous dermatitis of the hands, arms and legs.

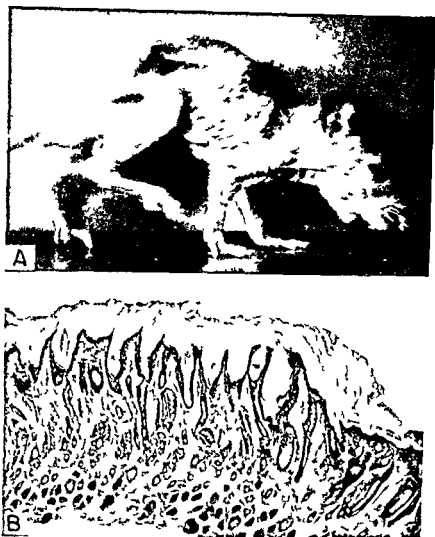


FIGURE 69 Skin Biotin Deficiency (703) A External appearance of a rat which had been placed on a diet containing thirty per cent erg. white. There is complete absence of hair and the entire body is covered by greasy yellow scales. Note also the humped position and gait. B Skin from late stage similar to that depicted grossly. Note hyperkeratosis with dilatation of the orifices of the hair follicles. This results in a peculiar finger-like appearance of the epithelium. There is relatively little change in the underlying corium. (Courtesy of Dr. Maurice Sullivan and the *Archives of Dermatology and Syphilology*.)

Microscopically the skin shows an increasing hyperkeratosis, together with a uniform acanthosis or increase in the prickle cell layer. A sparse but definite diffuse cellular infiltration of the corium then appears, this latter structure also becomes edematous. The shafts of the hair follicles then appear dilated and their pituitous orifices become clogged with hyperkeratotic sudanophilic material. By the late stage of the disease the epidermis is atrophic, there is a diminution in the size of the sebaceous glands and small superficial ulcers and epidermal atrophy appear. The meibomian glands are not affected. Biotin concentrates completely ameliorate these cutaneous changes.

Biotin deficient hamsters (705) develop a dermatitis at the corners of the mouth, such lesions spread more excessively as the deficiency progresses. Alopecia occurs in biotin deficient mice (780). Dermatitis and alopecia have been described in rabbits fed a diet containing excessive amounts of egg white (706). In monkeys (707) rendered acutely deficient in biotin a scaling dermatitis has been described, this appears most conspicuously over the face, arms and legs. In more chronically deficient animals, the hair becomes thin and loses its color. In none of these last four species have histological studies been reported.

Nervous Tissues and Muscles Because of the peculiar attitude and gait of biotin-deficient rats the nervous tissues and muscles of deficient animals have been studied (704). Careful examinations of the fore brain, the hind brain, the spinal cord, posterior root ganglia and sciatic nerve have failed to reveal any abnormality. Studies of muscle tissues, however, have demonstrated atrophy, necrosis of fibers, and an increase in sarcolemma nuclei similar to the changes which are observed in alpha-tocopherol deficiency. When large doses of the latter vitamin were added to the diet of a second group of animals only atrophy was found, so that it appears that biotin is not the etiological factor responsible for the changes described in the first series of animals. A single myographic reading following stimulation of the sciatic nerve gave no evidence of repetitive discharge, this would indicate that the rigidity which is observed is not myotonic in origin. In view of the physiological changes which appear in the muscle it is of interest to note that higher creatine contents of sciatic muscle from deficient animals have been noted than in controls, it is unfortunate however, that comparison was not made with manitition controls (708). Studies of other tissues of biotin deficient rats have not revealed any other significant morphological changes, there is however some evidence that biotin deficiency leads to an anemia in dogs (711) but not rats (712).

Tumors When biotin is added to diets which ordinarily protect rats from developing hepatic tumors produced by feeding a decrease in the protective value of the diet occurs (710). In other words biotin appears to act as an anti-inhibitor of the growth of this type of neoplasm in rats. As might be expected this finding has led to the therapy of human cancer with avidin but thus far the administration of egg white or avidin to humans with malignant tumors has not met with encouraging results.

Biotin Deficiency in Man Biotin deficiency has been produced in experimental subjects to whom 200 grams of dehydrated egg-white was fed daily (713). After three to four weeks on such a diet all four volunteers developed a fine non-puritic scaling of the skin. Although the dietary regimen was maintained the skin lesions disappeared after a time. One subject developed a maculosquamous dermatitis of the hands, arms and legs.

All evidenced a peculiar grivish color of the skin and all ultimately showed atrophy of the lingual papillae. Anorexia, extreme lassitude, sleeplessness and muscle pain were also accompaniments of the deficient state. Two subjects complained of precordial distress, and electrocardiographic alterations were present. Biotin therapy afforded prompt relief of these signs and symptoms. Spontaneous biotin deficiency in man seems extremely remote since balance studies indicate that enough biotin is synthesized by the intestinal flora and is absorbed in large enough quantities so that the human does not need an exogenous source of the vitamin (714). In addition, it is unlikely that the ordinary diet could contain enough of the anti biotin avidin to lead to biotin deficiency.

Folic Acid (*L. Casei* Factor)*

Historical In 1935 Day and his associates (715) described a syndrome consisting of megaloblastic leukopenia, necrosis of the gums and diarrhea in monkeys, signs developed on a diet deficient in the B group other than thiamine. Since further studies eliminated riboflavin and nicotinic acid as the causal factors of the changes exhibited by such monkeys (716) an unknown substance present in liver and yeast was designated as the active principle or vitamin M. Down and his collaborators then showed that anemia and leukopenia in the monkey can not be cured by the inclusion of pyridoxine and calcium pantothenate with other crystalline vitamins and that anemia can be prevented by a concentrate of folic acid (717). A little later Day demonstrated that purified *L. Casei* Factor is effective in curing the anemia of deficient monkeys (718).

While these investigations on the monkey were being carried out Schrell et al (719) had shown that folic acid cures granulocytopenia in rats whose diets contained sulfaguanidine. During the same period the factors referred to above had been isolated and shown to be indispensable for certain microorganisms such as *Lactobacillus casei* and *Streptococcus fecalis* hence the terms '*L. Casei* Factor' and 'Folic Acid' as others had called a similar active compound derived from leafy vegetables (720). For several years the nature and interrelationships of these materials were not entirely clear. However in 1945 the synthesis of an active *L. casei* factor was reported (721) and during the latter part of that year and the early months of 1946 a number of clinical reports appeared which demonstrated the importance of this synthetic material in the treatment of various types of megaloblastic anemia in the human. The structure of this synthetic material was finally announced in 1946 (722), to be made up of 3 substances: a 2 ringed nitrogen compound

* Pteroylglutamic Acid

or a pteridine paraaminobenzoic acid and glutamic acid. The latter is present in varying amounts depending on the natural source from which the active compounds are derived.

Biochemical Relationships Little is known of the chemical reactions in which folic acid participates. Studies on humans have demonstrated that this material converts the megaloblastic bone marrow which is observed in pernicious anemia and other macrocytic anemias to a normoblastic type of tissue. The mechanism for this transformation is, of course, not understood. At this writing there is no clear-cut evidence of the relationship of folic acid to the intrinsic factor, extrinsic factor, or the erythrocyte maturing factor. Studies of clinical cases of macrocytic anemia already reported would seem to indicate that folic acid is not identical with the first two factors and from amounts which must be administered in order to produce therapeutic effects it is unlikely that folic acid is the EMF factor of liver extract, either.

Pathological Effects The earlier studies of DAY (715-716) helped very little to characterize the blood dyscrasia which appears in monkeys. Such animals display moderate anemia and leukopenia, no examination of the bone marrow or other tissues was reported. So too the tissues of Doan's animals were not investigated and only the blood picture has been reported upon (724).

The group at the National Institute of Health reported the effects on rats of sulfaguanidine or sulfisuxidine (1%) incorporated into purified diets (723). Severe leukopenia and agranulocytosis are produced by this means as well as reduction of hemoglobin concentrations in some animals. The marrow of rats showing granulocytopenia exhibits a decreased number of the cells of this series particularly adult and juvenile forms. In some rats there is evidence of impaired erythropoiesis. The peripheral blood usually shows a reduction in red cell count and hemoglobin concentrations. There is of course a reduction in white blood cells. For instance one rat (14651) receiving 1% sulfaguanidine in the diet for 27 days had a hemoglobin concentration of 8.5 Gms. and a white count of 2,600 of which only 6% were granulocytes. After 57 days of therapy with liver the hemoglobin had risen to 14.0 Gms. and the white count to 6,600 of which 26% were granulocytes. It is unfortunate that the results reported are not very consistent that is the development of anemia appears to be extremely variable though the effects of the deficiency and therapy on white blood cells are more uniform. This adverse hematological response to sulfonamides in the diet may be reversed by the administration of crystalline folic acid (719). The granulocytopenia and leukopenia are apparently corrected, evidence for in effect on anemia appears to be less convincing. It is unfortunate that this anemia has not been characterized that is we do not know whether it is macrocytic in type or not.

L. Casei Factor Deficiency in Man Because of the response of rats and monkeys to *L. casei* factor or to "folic acid" it is not surprising that the anti-anemic property of this material has been investigated in man. Soon after the announcement of the preparation of synthetic *L. casei* factor groups of investigators in Birmingham (725, 726), Nashville (727), St. Louis (728), Columbus (729) and Detroit (730) announced the efficacy of this material in unspecified nutritional microcytic anemia, tropical microcytic anemia, sprue, addisonian pernicious anemia, pernicious anemia of pregnancy and microcytic anemia of infancy.

In such cases the synthetic compound is effective when given orally, parenterally or intravenously. It is not clear as yet whether *L. casei* factor is the anti-pernicious anemia factor or not. At any rate in the above types of microcytic anemia it readily leads to a pronounced reticulocyte response, a rise in hemoglobin and an increase in leucocyte count so that it becomes increasingly apparent that we are dealing with one of the more fundamental molecules essential to the normal metabolism of all cell types in marrow, and in young actively growing cells and tissues generally, perhaps" (729). In addition the above studies which were referred to would seem to indicate that lingual changes when present are meliorated. Insufficient data are available on the effect of this compound on the nervous tissues of addisonian pernicious anemia.

Inositol

Historical Although inositol was isolated from living tissues during the 19th century its designation as an essential nutrient did not come until 1940 when Woolley (731) described alopecia in mice which had been placed on a diet deficient in this substance. Since Woolley's report both positive and negative experimental results have been recorded. At the present time however the essential nature of dietary inositol seems established. Variations in biological response which have been so confusing, are likely due to differences in bacterial synthesis of the material by the gastrointestinal flora.

Biochemical Relationships Inositol is a constituent of a phosphatide derived from brain and is such may function in a fashion similar to choline (732). Its relationship to fat metabolism has been shown by its protective action on fatty infiltration on the liver (686, 733) although it appears to enhance the incidence and severity of renal lesions on a choline deficient-low protein diet (686). Beef heart is a rich source of inositol containing 1.6 percent on a dry weight basis (735). The significance of this remains to be determined.

Pathological Effects No histological studies have been reported on animals depleted of inositol. Positive results dealing with its effects on growth have been reported in mice (731) rats (736) cotton rats (614) and possibly hamsters (705).

Inositol Deficiency in Man Inositol has been shown to decrease liver fat and is rarely found in human patients with gastrointestinal carcinomata (737) this is the only observation reported on a positive action by this material on man.



FIGURE 70 *Inositol Deficiency* Mouse which had been placed on an inositol deficient diet. Note loss of hair over body with fur still remaining over head and extremities (Courtesy of Dr D W Woolley.)

Para-Aminobenzoic Acid

Historical The possibility that para-aminobenzoic acid is an indispensable nutrient was advanced by Ansbacher (738) in 1941.

Biochemical Relationships At the present time there are virtually no data on the possible role of para-aminobenzoic acid in biological processes save that it is a part of the folic acid molecule (722).

Pathological Effects Ansbacher (738) has been able to produce achromotrichia in rats on a synthetic diet and to restore the color of the fur with para-aminobenzoic acid. The achromotrichia is apparently unrelated to pantothenic acid or copper deficiencies (pages 176 and 52). No studies



FIGURE 71 Achromotrichia. Para aminobenzoic Acid Deficiency. *A* Rat which had been on a para aminobenzoic acid deficient diet for four weeks. *B* Rat on same deficient diet for four weeks and then two weeks on the same diet supplemented with three $m\mu$ of para amino benzoic acid per day. (Courtesy of Dr. S. Ansbacher.)

have as yet been reported on the tissues of para-aminobenzoic acid deficient animals.

PART V

THE ESSENTIAL FATTY ACIDS

If these well known fatty acids (in lard) are responsible for the cures described then we must assign to them a function far more subtle than the production of numerous calories of energy per gram burned. By their presence they have changed the entire economy of the animal, causing an increase in body weight equal to 10 times the weight of the acids consumed. The increase in weight is always accompanied by a return to normal health.' Burr and Burr 1929 (739)

Para-Aminobenzoic Acid

Historical The possibility that para-aminobenzoic acid is an indispensable nutrient was advanced by Ansbacher (738) in 1941

Biochemical Relationships At the present time there are virtually no data on the possible role of para-aminobenzoic acid in biological processes save that it is a part of the folic acid molecule (722)

Pathological Effects Ansbacher (738) has been able to produce achromotrichia in rats on a synthetic diet and to restore the color of the fur with para-aminobenzoic acid. The achromotrichia is apparently unrelated to pantothenic acid or copper deficiencies (pages 176 and 52). No studies

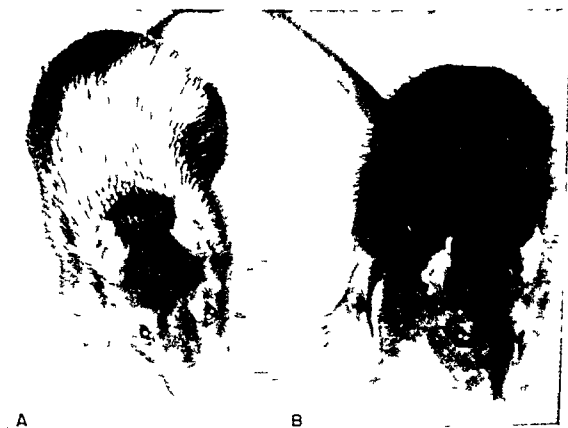


FIGURE 71 Achromotrichia. Para aminobenzoic Acid Deficiency. *A* Rat which had been on a para aminobenzoic acid deficient diet for four weeks. *B* Rat on same deficient diet for four weeks and then two weeks on the same diet supplemented with three mg. of para amino benzoic acid per day. (Courtesy of Dr. S. Ansbacher.)

have as yet been reported on the tissues of para-aminobenzoic acid deficient animals.

LINOLEIC, LINOLENIC AND ARACHIDONIC ACIDS

Historical In 1929, Burr and Burr (739) described a new disease in rats which had been placed on a fat-free diet. This chronic disease was characterized by growth failure after 4 or 5 months and skin and kidney lesions; it could be cured by as little as ten drops of lard each day. These investigators soon showed that the specific factor was linoleic acid which was therefore designated as an "essential fatty acid" (740). Linolenic and arachidonic acid have since been shown to substitute for linoleic acid at least as far as growth is concerned.

Biochemical Relationships The physiological function of the essential fatty acid is obscure. Schonheimer (741) has demonstrated that these substances in contrast to other fatty acids are not formed within the organism. Unsaturated fatty acids seem to be related to the deposition of ceroid (page 127). Fatty acid deficiency in the rat is accompanied by an increased consumption of water; the average daily consumption of deficient and control animals has been reported as 20.9 cc and 1.5 cc respectively (740).

Pathological Effects As yet the effects of fatty acid deficiencies have only been reported in the rat and dog and in both these species the reports have only been fragmentary.

Inadequate histological studies have been reported on the skin (742), kidneys (743), and reproductive tissues (744-745) of rats. When such animals are placed on a fat-free diet the initial change which occurs is from 70 to 90 days, is scaling of the epidermis over the dorsa of the feet. Scaling of the tail also occurs and the tip usually becomes inflamed and sometimes necrotic. Alopecia of the head, neck and back has also been observed. Skin lesions are affected by the degree of humidity of the environment, being made more severe by a low relative humidity (747). Microscopic examination of the skin has revealed hyperkeratosis, but no mention has been made of the appearance of the hair follicles and sebaceous glands (742).

Bloody urine and kidney lesions are important manifestations described by the Burrs and renal damage is said to be more severe on a high protein diet. Grossly the organs are enlarged and pale with finely pitted and coarsely granular surfaces (743). The pathogenesis of the renal lesions is not at all clear. The principle site of damage is the tubular epithelium. The cells are filled with lipoid. Some are necrotic. The tubular lumen contains hyaline material and fat droplets. Casts of similar composition are found in the collecting tubules as well. Calcification is prominent following damage to the tubular epithelium. In some of the animals tubules lined by flat regenerated epithelium are found. The glomeruli are said to be normal in all animals. The cells of the collecting tubules also contain sudanophilic material and are necrotic. The papillae are calcified. An illustration depicts necrosis,

PART V

THE ESSENTIAL FATTY ACIDS

Linoleic Linolenic and Arachidonic Acids

209

PART VI

THE PATHOLOGIC ANATOMY OF SPECIFIC TISSUES

A RECAPITULATION AND COMPARISON

In the foregoing sections of this book, specific tissue changes resulting from deficiencies of each of the essential inorganic elements amino acids vitamins, and fatty acids were discussed. Alterations have been described in a variety of organs and tissues, in fact, as a glance at Table VI will demonstrate, virtually every mammalian tissue may be affected. For convenience sake, Table VI has been arranged on a morphological not etiological basis. It is hoped that such an approach to nosography will be pardoned. All of the changes which are listed have been discussed in the preceding sections.

Such a wide variety of lesions furnishes the histologist and histochemist potent techniques with which to study both morphological and physiological disturbances in cells and tissues. In the following pages an attempt will be made to recapitulate the changes which may be produced by deficiencies in specific nutrients, in addition certain instances will be mentioned in which comparative studies should prove fruitful.

apical degeneration and calcification" of a papilla which however, resembles more nearly artefact produced by tearing of calcified material. Calcification in this region appears to be both inter- and intratubular. In the pelvis "hyperplasia of the epithelium" has been described. Such epithelium is not cornified. The choline and protein content of the diet employed is not clear and these, of course, are especially important in view of the lesions which have been described in choline deficient rats (page 195).

Disturbances in reproductive activity have been described and histological studies have been reported in male (744) and female (745) animals. In no studies has the paired-feeding technique been used, so that it is quite possible that the changes described are merely due to inanition. In the male animal there is a loss of sex interest and macroscopic atrophy of the testes. Microscopically the tubular epithelium shows various degrees of degeneration and characteristic giant cell formation. Regeneration takes place following administration of an essential fatty acid.

In the female animal reproduction is affected early, ovulation late in the course of a deficiency. There are atrophic changes and under-development of the uterine mucosa and maternal decidua. The embryos are either resorbed or remain in utero longer than normal. Hemorrhage and necrosis accompanied by secondary inflammatory phenomena have been observed in the placentae and uterine walls. Changes which have been described are reminiscent of those which have been reported in vitamin A deficiency in rats.

In the dog a 'scaling flaky desquamation' has been produced by a fat-free diet. In addition the hair becomes dry and coarse (746). No histological studies have been reported.

Fatty Acid Deficiency in Man. A series of children with eczema and other diseases has been studied by Hansen (747). In the eczema group there was a significant lowering of the iodine number of the fatty acids of the serum. When large doses of oils having high iodine numbers were administered the serum iodine number rose and there was a coincident improvement in the skin lesions.

PART VI

THE PATHOLOGIC ANATOMY OF SPECIFIC TISSUES

A RECAPITULATION AND COMPARISON

In the foregoing sections of this book, specific tissue changes resulting from deficiencies of each of the essential inorganic elements amino acids vitamins, and fatty acids were discussed. Alterations have been described in a variety of organs and tissues, in fact, as a glance at Table VI will demonstrate, virtually every mammalian tissue may be affected. For convenience sake, Table VI has been arranged on a morphological not etiological basis. It is hoped that such an approach to nosography will be pardoned. All of the changes which are listed have been discussed in the preceding sections.

Such a wide variety of lesions furnishes the histologist and histochemist potent techniques with which to study both morphological and physiological disturbances in cells and tissues. In the following pages an attempt will be made to recapitulate the changes which may be produced by deficiencies in specific nutrients, in addition certain instances will be mentioned in which comparative studies should prove fruitful.

apical degeneration and calcification' of a papilla which, however, resembles more nearly artefact produced by tearing of calcified material. Calcification in this region appears to be both inter- and intratubular. In the pelvis 'hyperplasia of the epithelium' has been described. Such epithelium is not cornified. The choline and protein content of the diet employed is not clear and these, of course, are especially important in view of the lesions which have been described in choline deficient rats (page 195).

Disturbances in reproductive activity have been described and histological studies have been reported in male (744) and female (745) animals. In no studies has the purified-feeding technique been used so that it is quite possible that the changes described are merely due to malnutrition. In the male animal there is a loss of sex interest and microscopic atrophy of the testes. Microscopically the tubular epithelium shows various degrees of degeneration and characteristic giant cell formation. Regeneration takes place following administration of an essential fatty acid.

In the female animal reproduction is affected early, ovulation late in the course of a deficiency. There are atrophic changes and under-development of the uterine mucosa and maternal decidua. The embryos are either resorbed or remain in utero longer than normal. Hemorrhage and necrosis accompanied by secondary inflammatory phenomena have been observed in the placenta and uterine walls. Changes which have been described are reminiscent of those which have been reported in vitamin A deficiency in rats.

In the dog a 'scaling flaking desquamation' has been produced by a fat-free diet. In addition the hair becomes dry and coarse (746). No histological studies have been reported.

Fatty Acid Deficiency in Man A series of children with eczema and other diseases has been studied by Hansen (747). In the eczema group there was a significant lowering of the iodine number of the fatty acids of the serum. When large doses of oils having high iodine numbers were administered the serum iodine number rose and there was a coincident improvement in the skin lesions.

Table VI (continued)

- 4) TEETH
- a) *Dentine* Calcium phosphorus vitamin D ascorbic acid
 - b) *Enamel* Enamel Organ Magnesium fluorine (?) vitamin A
Pigmentation (rat) Iron tryptophane vitamin A alpha tocopherol

*BLOOD FORMING TISSUES VESSELS AND THE
COAGULATING MECHANISM*

- 1) RED BLOOD CELLS
 - a) *Erythropoiesis* Copper cobalt nicotinic acid (?) folic acid
 - b) *Hemoglobin Formation* Iron copper pyridoxine tryptophane
- 2) WHITE BLOOD CELLS Folic acid
- 3) PLATELETS Folic acid
- 4) BLOOD VESSELS Calcium (?) ascorbic acid vitamin K (?)
- 5) CLOTTING MECHANISM Calcium vitamin K

MUSCLE TISSUES

- 1) HEART Potassium alpha tocopherol thiamine
- 2) SKELETAL MUSCLE Alpha tocopherol
- 3) SMOOTH MUSCLE Alpha tocopherol (pigment)

NERVOUS TISSUES

- 1) PERIPHERAL NERVE Pyridoxine pantothenic acid riboflavin (?) nicotinic acid (?)
- 2) BRAIN Copper thiamine (?)

Table VI

SPECIFIC TISSUE CHANGES ASSOCIATED WITH DEFICIENCIES OF
ELEMENTS AMINO ACIDS VITAMINS, AND FATTY ACIDS

EPITHELIAL TISSUES

- 1) SKIN
 - a) *Epidermis* Magnesium, zinc vitamin A riboflavin pantothenic acid pyridoxine biotin linoleic acid
 - b) *Hair Follicle and Hair Shaft*
Alopecia Zinc tryptophan- riboflavin, pantothenic acid biotin inositol
Achromotrichia Copper pantothenic acid para aminobenzoic acid
 - c) *Sebaceous Glands* Zinc riboflavin
- 2) GASTROINTESTINAL TRACT
 - a) *Buccal Cavity* Zinc riboflavin nicotinic acid (?)
 - b) *Salivary Glands* Vitamin A
 - c) *Esophagus* Zinc
 - d) *Stomach* Calcium
 - e) *Intestine* Pantothenic acid
- 3) EYE AND PARAOCULAR GLANDS
 - a) *Cornea* Sodium zinc tryptophan lysine histidine riboflavin vitamin A
 - b) *Conjunctiva* Sodium vitamin A
 - c) *Lens* Calcium tryptophan riboflavin
 - d) *Globe and Retina* Choline vitamin A
 - e) *Lacrimal Glands* Vitamin A
 - f) *Tarsal Glands* Sodium
 - g) *Harderian Glands* Pantothenic acid
- 4) LIVER Magnesium methionine (cystine- choline) riboflavin pantothenic acid pyridoxine inositol
- 5) PANCREAS Vitamin A
- 6) ADRENAL Pantothenic acid
- 7) GENITO URINARY TRACT
 - a) *Kidney* Magnesium potassium chlorine choline linoleic acid
 - b) *Pelvis Ureter Bladder* Vitamin A
 - c) *Testis* Alpha toopherol
 - d) *Accessory Male Sex Organs* Vitamin A
 - e) *Ovary and Reproduction* Alpha toopherol
 - f) *Accessory Female Sex Organs* Vitamin A
- 8) RESPIRATORY TRACT
 - a) *Trachea and Bronchi* Vitamin A
- 9) THYROID Iodine
- 10) PARATHYROID Calcium
- 11) HYPOPHYSIS Ieucine (?)

MESENCHYMAL TISSUES

- 1) CONNECTIVE TISSUE Ascorbic Acid
- 2) CARTILAGE Calcium phosphorus vitamin D
- 3) BONE Calcium phosphorus manganese vitamin A vitamin D

PART VI

THE PATHOLOGIC ANATOMY OF SPECIFIC TISSUES A RECAPITULATION AND COMPARISON

| | |
|---|-----|
| Epithelial Tissues | 215 |
| Mesenchymal Tissues | 224 |
| Blood-Forming Tissues Vessels and the Coagulation Mechanism | 227 |
| Muscle Tissues | 251 |
| Nervous Tissues | 232 |

Table VII
SPECIFIC CHANGES IN EPITHELIUM
PRODUCED BY DEFICIENCIES OF ESSENTIAL NUTRIENTS IN RATS

| TYPE OF DEFICIENCY | GROSS DISTRIBUTION AND APPEARANCE | FLITHELIUM | HAIR FOLLICLES | SERACEOUS GLANDS | CORIUM |
|------------------------|---|--|---------------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| MACNISIUM (60) | Erythema of paws and ears | Hyperkeratosis late | Intact | Intact | Dilated vessels |
| ZINC (185) | Alopecia of dorsum with scaling | Hyperkeratosis acanthosis and para keratosis | Atrophy | Hypertrophied | Hyperemic late |
| RIBOFIAVIN (552) | Alopecia of head venter abdomen | Atrophy | Atrophy | Necrosis | Atrophy |
| PYRIDOXINE (642) | Symmetric scaling dermatitis of paws ears nose shin chest edema of paws | Hyperkeratosis and acanthosis | Intact until late | Intact until late | Edema hyperemia and inflammation |
| PANTOTHENIC ACID (606) | Alopecia of venter scaling of paws graying of fur | Hyperkeratosis acanthosis and vesiculation | Dilatation | Intact until late | No characteristic change |
| BIOTIN (703) | Generalized scaling, greasy dermatitis with alopecia | Extreme hyperkeratosis and acanthosis | Dilated and plugged | Intact until late | Intact until late |
| VITAMIN A (374) | Lesions only in atrophic skin | Keratization | Keratization | No change | No change |
| LINOLIC ACID (742) | Scaling of dorsae of feet necrosis of tip of tail | Hyperkeratosis | , | , | , |

EPITHELIAL TISSUES

Skin

As one of the most frequently involved sites in nutritional deficiency disease and as one which has been studied rather extensively, the skin presents an excellent example of the divergent pathological alterations which may occur. The lesions which have been reported thus far, particularly those occurring in the rat, exhibit a tremendous variability with regard to differences in involvement of the epithelium and its appendages, the hair follicles and sebaceous glands, in addition there are individual peculiarities of distribution over the body surface. Studies of nutritional dermatoses in the rat by Sullivan and others have placed a number on such a secure pathological basis that it is fairly easy to differentiate one from another when the general distribution and the histological changes are understood. Our knowledge of lesions in species other than the rat is only fragmentary, so that much further study will be necessary before these are understood. What is to follow should provide a stimulus for investigations of nutritional dermatoses in other animals, this should prove a tremendous boon to comparative dermatology.

The accompanying Table VII summarizes the alterations which have already been described in the rat in some detail. Individual differences in the distribution, gross appearance, and the microscopic changes in the epithelium, hair follicles, sebaceous glands, and corium of rats deficient in any one of the eight nutrients listed will be noted.

Gross Distribution and Appearance One of the most striking characteristics of the distribution of these skin lesions in rats is their wide variability, for instance the change may be generalized or only certain specific areas of the body, such as the extremities, may be involved, at least in the earlier stages. The reason for this is not clear, variations in the metabolism of skin from different regions of the body might furnish an answer. *In vitro* studies of the metabolism of skin from different sites in normal animals should be compared with studies of those deficient in the various essential nutrients. So too the effects of physical agents such as light, heat, humidity, et cetera might bring out interesting data such as those which have already been obtained with carcinogens (14). The response of normal skin and that from vitamin-deficient animals to a large number of injurious agents must be studied.

Epithelium In the epidermis hyperkeratosis and acanthosis are the most prominent manifestations of dermal involvement. Parakeratosis is infrequent. The significance of these changes is not clear but fundamentally they would seem to indicate some defect in the normal maturation and differ-

Skin Changes in Man In several of the human deficiency syndromes skin lesions are prominent. It is not always clear, however, which nutrient is responsible for the observed changes. In experimental ascorbic acid deficiency a perifollicular, papular hyperkeratosis has been observed (465) and cleared up following vitamin C therapy. Such lesions resemble grossly changes which were thought to be specific for human vitamin A deficiency (323). However the specificity of these lesions has recently been questioned (324) and a relation to deficiency of the B group suggested. The situation is, therefore, much confused. Lesions at the angles of the mouth (cheilosis) which were thought to be specific for riboflavin deficiency (586) have been cured by pyridoxine (292).

Gastro-Intestinal Tract

Buccal Cavity The lining of the base of the tongue exhibits parakeratosis in zinc-deficient rats (185) while the lingual filiform papillae show defective formation of cornified cells in riboflavin-deficient animals (552). Lesions of the gums and tongue are of course a characteristic part of the black-tongue syndrome in dogs but inasmuch as such changes can be produced only with difficulty when animals are placed on a purified diet lacking nicotinic acid the relationship of this substance to the lesions encountered is not clear at the present time (588). The tongue must be investigated more carefully in rats and other species subjected to deficiencies of essential nutrients. When one recalls the extensive lingual changes which are seen in human pellagra and in pernicious anemia it is extraordinary that so little study has been devoted to the tongue of experimental animals. The tongue in the human is somewhat similar to the corner of the rat. Deficiencies of various nutrients riboflavin, nicotinic acid, iron and the E.M.F. all seem to affect the lingual epithelium just as riboflavin, lysine, zinc and sodium do the rat's corner.

Salivary Glands These structures are involved in vitamin A deficiency (312). There is metaplasia of the ducts which leads to blockage and atrophy of the glandular epithelial cells. A deficiency of no other essential nutrient has as yet been shown to produce changes in the various salivary glands.

Esophagus A most unique alteration has been reported in the esophagus of zinc-deficient rats (185) in which there is thickening of the epithelium due to the presence of partially keratinized cell layers. Similar or any changes in fact have not been described in other deficiency syndromes though it is unusual to find experiments in which this structure is said to have been examined.

Stomach Ulcers of the stomach have been said to result from a number of deficiencies of necessary nutrients in many instances such diets have lacked other essentials so that the specificity of the lesions must be ques-

entration of the epithelial cell and as such of course, are indications of a deranged metabolism. Such changes are not seen in all of the deficiency syndromes, however, as atrophy of the epidermis is found in riboflavin-deficient rats (522) while those placed on magnesium-deficient rations have an entirely normal superficial covering until late in the course of the deficiency (60).

Hair Follicles and Hair Shaft In certain deficiency syndromes in the rat, such as those produced by zinc (185) and riboflavin (522), there is atrophy of the hair follicles and alopecia. In others such as pantothenic acid (606) and biotin (703) dilatation of the orifices of the hair follicles with loss of hair is prominent. When vitamin A deficiency is induced in the presence of an atrophic hair follicle there is keratinization of the follicular epithelium (324). Other deficiencies have not been well enough studied to determine the specific changes, if any, which may occur in the follicle itself, these include copper (137) and para-aminobenzoic acid (738), in which there is achromotrichia and inositol (731) and tryptophane (231) deficiencies in which there is alopecia. Understanding of the pathogenesis of the dermal changes in fatty acid deficiency is likewise very inadequate (742). The interrelationship of copper (137) pantothenic acid (606), and para-aminobenzoic acid (738) to a loss of color of the hair should be investigated. On a morphologic basis the achromotrichia produced by copper and pantothenic acid deficiencies appears to be different (137). Furthermore studies of positive chromotrichia factors such as phenylthiocarbamide (749) in relation to the above nutrients should furnish data which may be of great interest.

Sebaceous Glands Although these structures may also show alterations such as atrophy or hypertrophy in riboflavin or zinc deficiencies in the majority of the deficient states thus far studied the cells composing these glands tend to remain intact and exhibit no specific morphological changes.

Corium Alterations in the corium are usually not very prominent until late in the course of a deficiency when secondary alterations, as a result of infection, are seen. Vascular disturbances however, manifested by dilatation of the blood vessels may be observed in animals deficient in magnesium (60) pyridoxine (642), or in the pellagra syndrome. The cause for such changes is not clear.

The few pointed investigations on the effect of multiple deficiencies on the skin of rats have been referred to before (page 11). This field would seem to be a fruitful one for further investigation. So too the relation of hormones to changes produced by nutritional means should be of interest, for instance, the administration of large amounts of estrogen to rats (7) leads to changes in the skin which seem to be similar to those found in riboflavin-deficient animals (552) whose livers cannot inactivate estrogen *in vitro*.

lens is an extremely sensitive tissue to disturbance in metabolism so that it is not unlikely that other deficient varieties will be described

Eye Bulb and Retina Aside from the lesions of the cornea and lens which have just been mentioned, little else has been observed in the eye bulb itself. Hemorrhages have been noted in and about the ciliary body of a few choline-deficient rats (690). Extensive degeneration of the retina is said to occur as a result of vitamin A deficiency (322). It is apparent, however, that this portion of ocular apparatus has not been extensively studied in experimental animals and it is likely that other lesions will come into prominence when it is more carefully investigated. Especially interesting will be an examination of the retinas of riboflavin deficient animals since this substance can be demonstrated in the normal retina (559).

Lacrimal Glands The most extensive changes occur in the ducts of the periocular glands as a result of vitamin A deficiency (312). Hyperkeratosis leads to obstruction of the ducts which results in atrophy of the glandular epithelium and absence of secretion. The tarsal glands of sodium depleted rats are obstructed apparently by a clogging of secretion along the lid margins (110). In rats deficient in pantothenic acid the Harderian gland secretes an excessive amount of pigment which has been demonstrated to be coproporphyrin (607). A similar porphyrin pigment is elaborated when toxic amounts of choline chloride are administered to this species (750).

Liver

Hepatic damage resulting from nutritional deficiency of one sort or another has engaged the attention of numerous investigators in recent years. One must always bear in mind that some fatty infiltration accompanies partial inanition. Preeminently, deficiency in choline with an attendant deficiency in methionine leads to extreme fatty alterations in the liver cells (665, 672, 673, 674-676). Such fatty infiltration may be followed by necrosis of hepatic cells and replacement by scars, that is, the production of cirrhosis. Other factors which influence the resultant changes such as the fat and carbohydrate content of the diet have been discussed elsewhere (page 195). Cystine deficiency in the presence of adequate dietary choline leads to hemorrhagic necrosis of the liver. From the evidence at hand it would appear that the effects of cystine and choline deficiencies are different—the former producing necrosis while in the latter fatty infiltration followed by necrosis and scarring are seen. That a deficiency of either of two substances which are derived from methionine and which appear to be so closely related in metabolic processes should produce dissimilar effects on the liver is a curious fact that requires further study.

In addition to these essential nutrients fatty infiltration of the liver is associated with deficiencies in others: inositol in rats (686-733) pantothenic

tioned. Calcium-deficient rations, however, lead to ulceration of the gastric antrum in rats (44) and to gastric lesions of dogs (36).

Intestines The only other nutritional deficiency besides that of calcium to affect the intestinal tract is an inadequacy of pantothenic acid (610). Primarily in the colon, but in the lower portion of the small intestine as well, extensive alterations of the mucosa are found in swine. Such changes lead to severe ulceration accompanied by copious diarrhea. The intestinal flora of such animals has not been studied and obviously should be determined if this has any role in the pathogenesis of the lesions. The relation of such changes to those encountered in the blacktongue syndrome of dogs must likewise be investigated for it will be recalled the lesions are alike.

Eye and Paraocular Glands

Cornea Since the description of corneal vascularization in riboflavin-deficient animals (557), this change has been observed as a result of inadequacy of several other nutrients. For instance, invasion of the substantia propria occurs when dietary sodium (110) and zinc (185) are insufficient, in addition similar changes have been observed when diets deficient in the amino acids tryptophane (233), lysine (242), or histidine (250) are employed. The cause for the ingrowth of capillaries is not at all clear, so that the entire problem raises several interesting possibilities as to how damage to the cornea is produced. One is inclined to ascribe the capillary ingrowth to injury of the cornea itself, a change similar to that which is seen when the avascular cornea is deliberately traumatized (597). Injury can, of course, result from interference with the nutrition of the cornea via the tears, blood vessels at the limbus or aqueous humor, providing contact with the oxygen of the external environment is not impaired. Morphologic studies reported thus far have not stated whether damage to epithelium precedes capillary invasion. Leukocytic infiltration is observed in sodium deficient rats (110) before capillaries penetrate the cornea. A similar sequence occurs in vitamin A deficiency following keratinization of the corneal epithelium (557). That corneal vascularization may result from damage to the epithelium as a result of inadequate nutrients being furnished these cells by the tears has been mentioned elsewhere (page 163). More studies must be made to determine if there is any morphological evidence of epithelial damage in other deficient states. Equally important is the need for an examination of the cornea in other species since the question arises, of course, as to whether this structure in the rat is unique in that it is more sensitive to a variety of nutritional deficiencies than is the cornea of other animals.

Lens Cataract has been reported to result from a deficiency of calcium (467), tryptophane (232, 233), and riboflavin (561). The morphology of the different types of change in the lens has already been described. The

Pancreas

Aside from the familiar lesion in the duct epithelium in vitamin A deficiency no changes have been described in the pancreas in other nutritional deficiencies. This is true of the islands of Langerhans as well as the acinar tissue.

Adrenal

The adrenal gland is only involved in a clear-cut way by a deficiency of one nutrient, pantothenic acid. This change the pathogenesis of which is not at all clear, has only been described in one species the rat (608). Such animals exhibit "hemorrhagic necrosis" of the adrenal tissues. However, whether the primary site of damage is the blood vessels, the medulla, or cortical cells is not at all clear from the observations thus far published. The adrenal is occasionally said to be damaged in choline-deficient rats in which a vascular lesion may be the precipitating factor (690).

Genito-Urinary Tract

Kidneys Renal lesions have been produced thus far by deficiency of any one of five nutrients: potassium (87-89), magnesium (60, 64-65, 66), chlorine (788), choline (615-664, 682) and linoleic acid (742). In all, lesions appear to be most extensive in the tubular portions.

How much the pathogenesis of each may have in common is difficult to apprise until studies employing similar basic diets are made. In potassium-deficient rats accumulations of non-doubly refractile lipid in the tubular epithelium precede necrosis of the cells. The calcification which occurs is apparently secondary to these cellular changes. Whether fat accumulates in the tubular epithelial cells and precedes necrosis which is seen in choline-deficient animals is unknown and should be investigated in view of the tremendous fatty infiltration which occurs in the liver. So too, the changes in magnesium-deficient animals should be reinvestigated especially the early stages so that some idea of the pathogenesis of the lesions may be obtained. The damage hitherto described in fatty acid-deficient rats is difficult to interpret. The most prominent change appears to be injury to the tubular epithelial cells, but here again the pathogenesis is obscure. In chloride deficiency, kidney disease is apparently produced by a precipitation of calcium salts in the tubules with obstruction.

Renal Pelvis, Ureter, and Bladder The epithelial lining these structures undergoes keratinizing metaplasia as a result of vitamin A deficiency. No changes have been described in other deficient states.

Testis The male germinal epithelium is extremely sensitive to nutrition. Consequently testicular atrophy is a prominent part of many nutritional deficiencies. Specific and irreversible damage occurs in vitamin F deficiency.

acid in dogs (612), pyridoxine in swine (652) and rats (656), and riboflavin in dogs (554) and possibly swine (556). The histological distribution of the fat in relation to the liver lobule has not been pointedly studied in a single species, this should be investigated. So too, the morphological distribution of fat as revealed by histochemical studies should be correlated with the partition of total fat, fatty acids, cholesterol, and phospholipids as determined by chemical analysis.

Because of the great interest in dietary hepatic damage during recent years the role of nutrition in the pathogenesis of liver disease in the human has received considerable attention. Some promising results have already been reported. That a certain proportion of chronic alcoholics, whose diets are notoriously inadequate, will die with livers containing increased amounts of fat has been demonstrated (751). Whereas the total fat content of the normal liver averages about 5 gm percent those from a group of chronic alcoholics averaged 12 gm percent, wide variations occurred in this group of 25 subjects the greatest amount being 34.8 gm percent. In a series of five cirrhotics the fat values conformed more with the normal group. It is well known that the cirrhotic liver at autopsy may or may not contain appreciable quantities of fat histologically. The relationship of fat accumulation in the human liver to cirrhosis has been a much discussed question, many believing that cirrhosis is the ultimate outcome of massive fatty infiltration of the liver cells in some cases at least (752). In view of the frequently observed and simultaneous occurrence of severe fatty infiltration and early fibrosis, of the curative effects of choline in the liver lesions of rats and effect of methionine on experimental liver damage in dogs it would seem desirable to pay careful attention to the nutrition of the patient with portal cirrhosis. This question is being studied today in several clinics where adequate diets supplemented by yeast and liver extract are being employed. There seems to be a significant difference in the clinical course between treated and untreated groups, for instance in one study (753) a larger portion of the treated patients survived one or two years following the onset of ascites than did those of the control group and at the end of the second year 45% of the former were alive while only 21% of the untreated group were living.

The effects of methionine in retarding or ameliorating liver lesions in protein-depleted dogs poisoned by a variety of agents have been referred to. It is unlikely that this amino acid will protect the normal animal. There are several recent reports of the use of methionine and casein digests in humans poisoned by various toxic agents. For instance methionine and casein digests have been used in the treatment of a patient who inadvertently ingested 30 to 40 milliliters of carbon tetrachloride (754). Such treatment was successful but obviously more cases will have to be observed before definite conclusions can be drawn.

replaced by keratinizing epithelium. Studies of other deficiencies have failed to reveal specific alteration in these tissues.

Thyroid Gland

It will be recalled that the thyroid gland is prone to exhibit morphological changes (usually hyperplasia) under a variety of stimuli. It does appear, however, that iodine deficiency leads to epithelial hyperplasia (201, 202, 203, 204-205). The reason for the hyperplasia is doubtless due to increased stimulation of the thyroid epithelium by the hypophysis because of a decrease in circulating thyroid hormone. It would be interesting to study the effects of iodine deficiency in the hypophysectomized animal. The counterpart of colloid goiter, which in man is thought to result from iodine deficiency, has not been produced in experimental animals placed on low-iodine regimens.

Parathyroid Glands

Because of its intimate role in calcium metabolism it is not surprising that a deficiency of lime salts leads to parathyroid hyperplasia (45). There is adequate evidence that a lowering of the blood calcium stimulates parathyroid secretion and in certain other metabolic disturbances such as nephritis enlargement of this gland is encountered. Although it is claimed that phosphorus deficiency also produces enlargement of the parathyroids, this observation requires confirmation since others including ourselves (115) have not observed similar changes on diets deficient in phosphorus alone.

Hypophysis

In reports dealing with the response of tissues to deficiency of an essential nutrient, the hypophysis is seldom mentioned, which means of course that it is not usually examined in routine studies. It has been claimed that this important gland of internal secretion is twice as large as normal in the leucine-deficient rat—an observation which certainly requires confirmation. A secondary manifestation of vitamin A deficiency which apparently depends on increased intracranial pressure is the presence of cysts in the hypophysis of calves deficient in this vitamin.

Mesenchymal Tissues

Connective Tissues Ascorbic acid is apparently of importance in determining the differentiation of mesenchymal cells into fibroblasts, so that when this vitamin is absent the potential connective tissue cell is unable to

although it will be recalled (page 122) that only the rat (407-408) and guinea pig (409) show this change. In such animals if the deficient state is severe enough there is complete destruction of the spermatogonia, only the Sertoli cells remain. The paired-feeding technique should be utilized to study the effects of deficiencies of the other essential nutrients more carefully. This is certainly true of arginine deficiency in which there is some experimental evidence of a specific effect of this nutrient on the testis of man (255).

Accessory Male Sexual Apparatus Characteristic changes occur in the epididymis, prostate, seminal vesicles and coagulating glands in vitamin A deficiency. When the effects of inanition are ruled out no other nutrients have as yet shown to effect these structures.

Ovary In vitamin E deficiency the ova can be said to be involved inasmuch as the developing embryo and its tissues appear to bear the brunt of the damage incurred (402-403, 404-405). Depending on the degree of maternal deficiency various pathological alterations are seen in the embryo from the tenth or eleventh day on. Reproduction is of course interfered with as a result of numerous other deficiencies. However the question of inanition has not been ruled out in any thus far reported, that is, animals which fail to gain or gain weight poorly on deficient diets have not been compared with animals on the control diet whose food intake is restricted so that the weight gain in both are comparable. This is brought out in a study of pantothenic acid deficiency on the reproductive activity of the rat in which it is concluded that the factor of inanition was eliminated in animals made deficient before and at the day of mating. However this experiment exemplifies again the probable inaccuracies inherent in the paired-feeding technique for the deficient animals gained an average of one fourth that of their adequately paired-fed and non-deficient controls (766). The role of vitamin A needs to be clarified since localized areas of inflammation have been noted at the fetal-maternal junction the reason for this is not clear. Manganese deficiency may lead to specific lesions in the fetus which have their inception in utero. Histological studies have not been reported in such animals.

Accessory Female Sex Organs The uterus, vagina and vulva of vitamin A deficient animals exhibit the characteristic keratinizing metaplasia seen elsewhere. Lesions in these tissues as a result of a deficiency of other nutrients have not been reported, at least convincing evidence of changes other than those which must be ascribed to inanition has not been brought forward.

Respiratory Tract

Trachea and Bronchi The air passages exhibit a change in their lining epithelium in vitamin A deficiency when normal ciliated columnar cells are

replaced by keratinizing epithelium. Studies of other deficiencies have failed to reveal specific alteration in these tissues.

Thyroid Gland

It will be recalled that the thyroid gland is prone to exhibit morphological changes (usually hyperplasia) under a variety of stimuli. It does appear, however, that iodine deficiency leads to epithelial hyperplasia (201, 202, 203, 204, 205). The reason for the hyperplasia is doubtless due to increased stimulation of the thyroid epithelium by the hypophysis because of a decrease in circulating thyroid hormone. It would be interesting to study the effects of iodine deficiency in the hypophysectomized animal. The counterpart of colloid goiter which in man is thought to result from iodine deficiency has not been produced in experimental animals placed on low-iodine regimens.

Parathyroid Glands

Because of its intimate role in calcium metabolism it is not surprising that a deficiency of lime salts leads to parathyroid hyperplasia (41). There is adequate evidence that a lowering of the blood calcium stimulates parathyroid secretion and in certain other metabolic disturbances such as nephritis enlargement of this gland is encountered. Although it is claimed that phosphorus deficiency also produces enlargement of the parathyroids, this observation requires confirmation since others including ourselves (115) have not observed similar changes on diets deficient in phosphorus alone.

Hypophysis

In reports dealing with the response of tissues to deficiency of an essential nutrient the hypophysis is seldom mentioned which means, of course, that it is not usually examined in routine studies. It has been claimed that this important gland of internal secretion is twice as large as normal in the leucine-deficient rat—an observation which certainly requires confirmation. A secondary manifestation of vitamin A deficiency which apparently depends on increased intracranial pressure is the presence of cysts in the hypophysis of calves deficient in this vitamin.

Mesenchymal Tissues

Connective Tissues. Ascorbic acid is apparently of importance in determining the differentiation of mesenchymal cells into fibroblasts so that when this vitamin is absent the potential connective tissue cell is unable to

lay down agyrophilic fibers which normally are converted into collagen (463). The exact mechanism of this process in the formation of intracellular substances is not as yet entirely clear. The theory that connective tissue cells, or at least potential fibroblasts, are only able to deposit a fluid like material that jells into collagen under the influence of ascorbic acid is an attractive hypothesis but one which must be investigated further.

The subject of "intercellular cement substance," that is the material which holds endothelial and other cells together, should be mentioned here also. Whether this material is related to the substances which we call "collagen" is not clear at this time. It is thought by some that calcium is more important than ascorbic acid in maintaining the integrity of this material (770). The whole problem is extremely complex, especially since we are so ignorant of the chemical nature of collagenous materials and 'cement substance'. The relationships of calcium and ascorbic acid have been reviewed (344), especially in relation to intercellular substances and cell surfaces.

Cartilage and Bone Since these two specialized tissues are so closely related, they will be discussed together. Bone growth, in which of course cartilage growth is involved, can be impaired in several ways: disturbance in the osteogenic-osteolytic balance; disturbance in growth of cartilage; or disturbance in the deposition of the inorganic elements in cartilagenous matrix substance and/or osteoid.

Scurvy is the disease which exemplifies the first type, for in this malady there is an inability of fibroblasts to form osteoid. The pathological consequences of this have been described in detail. Lesions of vitamin C deficiency develop because there is no disturbance in the growth of cartilage; thus ascorbic acid deficiency differs from vitamin A deficiency in that in the latter there is not only a decrease in osteoblastic activity, but also a slowing up of the growth of cartilage cells. Bone changes in vitamin A deficient animals are morphologically identical with those seen in nutrition but must be mentioned because the skeleton is singled out from the rest of the tissues when vitamin A is absent from the diet and the specific action of this vitamin on bone can be beautifully brought out when excessive amounts are administered (771).

Rickets furnishes an example of the third type of bone disease: defective deposition of calcium and phosphorus in the cartilage and osteoid which, of course may occur from a deficiency of calcium, phosphorus or vitamin D. Rickets can be produced not only by an abnormal ratio of calcium and phosphorus in the diet, but by excessively low dietary levels of these two elements (377). The cartilage growth component of rickets is not clear. Whether vitamin D or a deranged calcium phosphorus ratio or level in the intercellular fluids or mechanical effects predispose to the refractoriness of the cells to destruction are subjects for further investigation.

The role of manganese in bone formation is as yet not settled but since bony deformities have been noted (169, 171, 172, 183), this element may play a role in osteogenesis which is interesting in view of its relation to phosphatase activity (165)

Teeth As the dental structures are derivatives of both epithelium (enamel organ) and dentine, they may be discussed from two stand-points depending on which of these two components is initially affected. The enamel organ is primarily damaged in both magnesium and vitamin A deficiencies. It is unfortunate that this structure has not been studied more fully in other deficiencies in which ectodermal structures particularly the skin are severely involved. In magnesium deficient animals ameloblasts atrophy with the result that the enamel is hypoplastic. Secondary changes occur in the formation of dentine. The enamel organ acts as an organizer of the odontoblasts and in vitamin A deficiency a lack of this organizing influence is strikingly seen. Because of physiological abnormalities in the ameloblasts the odontoblasts do not differentiate with a result that the formation of dentine is irregular or absent. The enamel organ in this instance seems to have the same effect on the organization of odontoblasts as does vitamin C.

Interest has also been aroused in teeth because of another functional activity of the ameloblasts, the formation of the familiar yellow iron containing pigment of the rat's incisor. Failure of this pigment to be deposited has been noted to result from deficiency of several nutrients: iron, tryptophane, vitamin A, and alpha-tocopherol. Since this material contains iron it is not surprising that iron deficiency leads to its disappearance (616). The relations of tryptophane to the pigment is less clear although this amino acid is of course intimately allied to hemoglobin formation (229-234). Vitamin A deficiency leads to changes in the ameloblasts which would explain the dental achromia in this deficiency. Absence of the pigment in vitamin E deficient rats cannot be explained at present. It is of interest that when certain elements such as cadmium and fluorine are included in the diet of rats the yellow pigment does not appear (755).

It was noted above (page 100) that the odontoblasts are organized by the enamel epithelium so that various secondary changes are seen in the dentine as a result of damage to the enamel organ. Certain deficiencies, however, primarily affect the physiology of dentine. For instance, vitamin C deprivation leads to a cessation of formation of dentine in conformity with its generalized influence on the elaboration of inter-cellular substances of which dentine is one. Defects in the formation of dentine and of the tooth supporting structures are characteristic of the scorbutic state (474-475, 476-477). A somewhat different situation prevails in rickets; here the odontoblastic activity is not impaired but the dentine which is formed is not calcified because of the disturbance in calcium and phosphorus metabolism (380).

lay down agyrophilic fibers which normally are converted into collagen (463). The exact mechanism of this process in the formation of intracellular substances is not as yet entirely clear. The theory that connective tissue cells, or at least potential fibroblasts, are only able to deposit a fluid like material that jells into collagen under the influence of ascorbic acid is an attractive hypothesis but one which must be investigated further.

The subject of "intercellular cement substance," that is the material which holds endothelial and other cells together, should be mentioned here also. Whether this material is related to the substances which we call "collagen" is not clear at this time. It is thought by some that calcium is more important than ascorbic acid in maintaining the integrity of this material (770). The whole problem is extremely complex especially since we are so ignorant of the chemical nature of collagenous materials and 'cement substance'. The relationships of calcium and ascorbic acid have been reviewed (344), especially in relation to intercellular substances and cell surfaces.

Cartilage and Bone Since these two specialized tissues are so closely related they will be discussed together. Bone growth, in which, of course cartilage growth is involved, can be impaired in several ways: disturbance in the osteogenic-osteolytic balance, disturbance in growth of cartilage, or disturbance in the deposition of the inorganic elements in cartilagenous matrix substance and/or osteoid.

Scurvy is the disease which exemplifies the first type, for in this malady there is an inability of fibroblasts to form osteoid. The pathological consequences of this have been described in detail. Lesions of vitamin C deficiency develop because there is no disturbance in the growth of cartilage, thus ascorbic acid deficiency differs from vitamin A deficiency in that in the latter there is not only a decrease in osteoblastic activity, but also a slowing up of the growth of cartilage cells. Bone changes in vitamin A deficient animals are morphologically identical with those seen in marasmus but must be mentioned because the skeleton is singled out from the rest of the tissues when vitamin A is absent from the diet, and the specific action of this vitamin on bone can be beautifully brought out when excessive amounts are administered (771).

Rickets furnishes an example of the third type of bone disease: defective deposition of calcium and phosphorus in the cartilage and osteoid, which, of course, may occur from a deficiency of calcium, phosphorus or vitamin D. Rickets can be produced not only by an abnormal ratio of calcium and phosphorus in the diet, but by excessively low dietary levels of these two elements (377). The cartilage growth component of rickets is not clear. Whether vitamin D or a deranged calcium phosphorus ratio or level in the intercellular fluids or mechanical effects predispose to the refractoriness of the cells to destruction are subjects for further investigation.

sults from interference with the metabolism of the nucleated forms of these cells (587). Such an hypothesis requires further study.

When considering the formation of hemoglobin, there are a few more data available. Since glycine has been shown to be one of the precursors of

THE ESSENTIAL NUTRIENTS AND RED BLOOD CELL FORMATION

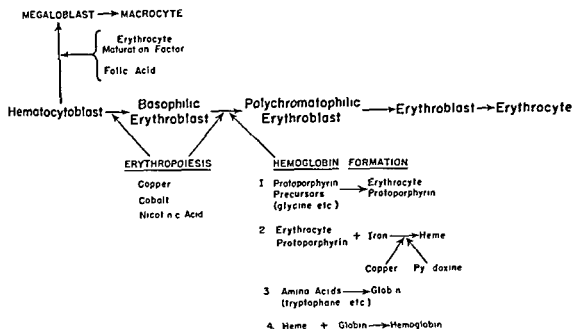


FIGURE 72

erythrocyte protoporphyrin (756) it is obvious that a deficiency of the essential amino acids which are precursors of glycine, as well as any other necessary ones will have an influence on the elaboration of protoporphyrin. Protoporphyrin combines with iron to form heme, an important reaction and of course, a crucial one in the development of iron-deficiency anemia. That copper and pyridoxine catalyze this reaction must await further proof though when these nutrients are not present in the diet iron pigment accumulates in the tissues (146, 652) and hyperferremia has been observed in pyridoxine-deficient animals (652). Although amino acids are necessary for the formation of heme they are even more important in the synthesis of globin. Since this material contains most of the essential amino acids, it is apparent that a deficiency of one or more of these building stones will lead to poor production of globin, it will be recalled further from Table V that a deficiency of these essential amino acids leads to a depression of hemoglobin formation in certain species.

381) Although enamel hypoplasia has not been observed on low phosphorus diets, it has been noted when the calcium intake is restricted (382)

Blood-Forming Tissues, Vessels and the Coagulation Mechanism

Red Blood Cells A notable example of the effects of deficiencies of the essential nutrients is a consideration of erythrocytes and hemoglobin formation. The essential amino-acids at least 3 elements (iron, copper, and cobalt) and several vitamins (pyridoxine, riboflavin, nicotinic acid and folic acid) have all been implicated in erythropoiesis.

To gain a better perspective, a brief review of normal red blood cell and hemoglobin formation will be advantageous. It will be recalled that erythrocytes are derived from a primitive stem cell which many call the hemiocytoblast. In the maturation of this cell a series of increasing adult forms is encountered: basophilic erythroblast \rightarrow polychromatophilic erythroblast \rightarrow normoblast or erythroblast \rightarrow normocyte or erythrocyte. Hemoglobin, which appears somewhere at the end of the basophilic erythroblast stage, is an oxygen carrying pigment derived from protoporphyrin whose precursors are not all known though one appears to be glycine (756). At any rate, erythrocyte protoporphyrin combines with iron to form heme. In the meantime the globin molecule is being synthesized from amino acids. Finally, heme and globin are joined to form hemoglobin. Whether hemoglobin is formed in whole or in part by the developing erythrocyte is not known. We are thus faced with the task of attempting to determine just where the various essential nutrients fit into the process of erythropoiesis and hemoglobin synthesis. Figure 72 has been devised in an attempt to effect this understanding fully realizing that such a diagram must contain many errors, since species differences are so very important and our knowledge is so inadequate.

Included in the figure is an offshoot, the megaloblast and its successors. The place of this cell in blood formation is extremely controversial. For the present discussion we shall look upon the megaloblast as an abnormal cell fully realizing that many feel it is a normal component of the bone marrow.

Three nutrients appear to stimulate erythropoiesis *per se*. Copper is said to promote red blood cell formation even in the absence of hemoglobin production (141). The well known stimulation of erythropoiesis by cobalt makes it likely that, when this element is not present in the diet, there will be a depression of red blood cell formation (620). Since nicotinic acid is necessary for the formation of the phosphoridine nucleotides it has been suggested that the anemia which develops in nicotinic acid deficient dogs re-

Table VIII
BLOOD AND TISSUE CHANGES IN NUTRITIONAL ANEMIAS

| DEFICIENCY NUTRIENT | BONE MARROW HYPERPLASIA | HEMOSIDEROSIS | | | HYPERFERRINIA |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------|-------|-------------|---------------|
| | | SPLEEN | LIVER | BONE MARROW | |
| IRON | Microcytic hypochromic | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| PYRIDOXINE | Microcytic hypochromic | + | + | + | + |
| COPPER | Microcytic hypochromic | + | + | + | ? |
| TRYPTOPHAN | Normocytic normochromic | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| FOLIC ACID | Macrocytic hyperchromic | ? | ? | ? | ? |
| NICOTINIC ACID | Macrocytic or normocytic | + | ? | ? | ? |
| RIBOFLAVIN | * | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? |
| COBALAMIN | ? | + | + | + | ? |

*No uniformity

Early in the history of the disease, pernicious anemia, large cells were noted in the bone marrow and were called megaloblasts. Today, some hematologists consider these cells to be abnormal forms, while others regard them as normal components of the bone marrow and a stage in the development of all erythrocytes. They are seen in largest numbers when as essential material the erythrocyte maturing factor (EMF) is lacking. This factor is formed normally by the union of an extrinsic dietary substance, as yet unidentified, and an intrinsic factor elaborated by the gastric mucosa which has also not been identified or synthesized. Pernicious anemia can be looked upon as a conditioned deficiency resulting from a diseased stomach which is unable to elaborate the intrinsic factor. Folic acid causes the megaloblastic bone marrow of pernicious anemia and other macrocytic anemias to revert to a normoblastic type, this essential nutrient, therefore, appears to be related to the erythrocyte maturing factor. At the present writing, however, the relationship of folic acid to the extrinsic, the intrinsic and the final product, the EMF, must await further investigation.

Anemia has been described in riboflavin deficient animals—rats (712), swine (555), and dogs (554-564), the place of this vitamin hemopoiesis is obscure, however, since the anemia is not well enough characterized. Table VIII summarizes some of the characteristics of the various anemias which have been discussed. Many species containing question marks remain to be filled in.

White Blood Cells Much less attention has been directed at the study of disturbances in white blood cell formation than those of the red cell series. Nutritional agranulocytosis can be cured by the administration of folic acid (719), the only other instance of a disturbance in white blood cell formation results from deficiency of nicotinic acid in dogs (587).

Blood Vessels From studies of healing wounds in absolute scorbutus it is concluded that although endothelial cells are able to proliferate, capillaries cannot form when ascorbic acid is not present (463). This question needs further study since, for instance, there is no retardation of capillary invasion in bones placed in casts to prevent the mechanical manifestations of stress and strain (472). The question of increased capillary fragility in scurvy also needs more careful investigation. So too, whether the hemorrhages which occur in calcium (36-42) and vitamin K (443, 444) deficiencies are the results of poor clotting alone or whether there is actual damage to capillary endothelium, also requires pointed study.

Inasmuch as no mention has been made of so-called vitamin P or citrin this is an appropriate place to discuss this material, a flavonol which was first described by Szent-Gyorgyi and his associates in 1936 (598). The material was extracted from citrus fruits and differed from ascorbic acid. It was postulated that it influenced the permeability of capillaries. During

Table VIII
 BLOOD AND TISSUE CHANGES IN NUTRITIONAL ANEMIAS

| DEFICIENCY NUTRIENT | BONE MARROW HYPERPLASIA | HEMOSIDROSIS | | | HYPERIRRITABILIA |
|------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|-------|-------------|------------------|
| | | SPLEEN | LIVER | BONE MARROW | |
| IRON | Microcytic hypochromic | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| PARADONINI | Microcytic hypochromic | + | + | + | + |
| COPPER | Microcytic hypochromic | + | + | + | + |
| TRYPTOPHANI | Normocytic normochromic | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| FOLIC ACID | Macrocytic hyperchromic | ? | ? | ? | ? |
| NICOTINIC ACID | Macrocytic or normocytic | + | ? | ? | ? |
| RIBOFLAVIN | + | 0 | 0 | 0 | ? |
| COBALT | ? | + | + | + | ? |

*No uniformity

the following years there was confusion over the exact relationship of vitamin P to the scorbutic state. However, some reports seem to indicate that vitamin P is important in maintaining the integrity of capillaries even when ascorbic acid is present (786, 789). At the present time it is wise to withhold judgment awaiting further investigations.

Blood Clotting Mechanism Nutritional deficiencies play an important role in disturbances of the coagulation of blood since two very important factors in blood-clotting are affected: prothrombin and calcium. The first, of course, is dependent on an adequate ingestion and absorption of vitamin K and has been discussed elsewhere (page 128). Hemorrhage is also a manifestation of experimental calcium deficiency (36, 42) since calcium ions are necessary for the reaction $\text{prothrombin} \rightarrow \text{thrombin}$. A deficiency in fibrinogen can conceivably occur as the result of lack of dietary amino acids though no specific experimental evidence is available on this point.

Muscle Tissues

Cardiac Muscle Necrosis of myocardial fibers has been found to result from both potassium (page 33) and thiamine (page 146) deficiencies. In either case, individual or groups of muscle fibers lose their striations and become hyaline and necrotic. There is a varying degree of cellular infiltration. If the animal survives long enough, connective tissue scars replace the areas where muscle fibers have been destroyed. In potassium deficiency the lesions tend to predominate in the ventricular musculature, little change has been noted in the auricles. In contrast, the latter tissues of thiamine-deficient animals seem to be affected before the ventricles but later the walls of all chambers are severely involved. It is of interest that in rats at least, when potassium and thiamine deficiencies are produced simultaneously, no myocardial necroses develop. It is of some interest though the significance is not at all clear, that when large amounts of ethyl hurite (35-40 percent) are incorporated in a choline deficient diet myocardial necroses similar to those encountered in potassium or thiamine-deficient animals are found in rats (779). A combination of these might yield interesting results.

Rats placed on vitamin E rations for prolonged periods exhibit extensive scarring of the myocardium (425). Apparently there is first a deposition of ceroid in the myocardial fibers followed by necroses. Connective tissue is found about the bundles of muscle fibers and imbedded in the collagen are macrophages filled with this acid-fast pigment. Dr. Karl E. Mason has kindly allowed us to examine his material. The histological picture is strikingly different from that which is seen when potassium or thiamine deficiencies are present. The chronicity and presence of ceroid are doubtless only two of

many factors which will be found to account for this. Deficiencies of certain other nutrients are said to lead to heart damage. Ascorbic acid deficiency in guinea pigs may produce focal lesions in the heart (478), then too cases of sudden death have been observed in children who exhibit severe manifestations of scurvy in the skeleton (479).

Striated Muscle Extensive changes occur in the skeletal muscles as a result of deficiency of alpha tocopherol. Such changes which have been observed in several species (page 124) are characterized by hyaline degeneration, fatty infiltration, necrosis, edema and sometimes calcification. Lesions in the skeletal musculature as a result of other deficiencies require further investigation. Dystrophic lesions have been produced by simultaneous deficiency of potassium and thiamine although the muscle fibers are unaffected when either of these nutrients is absent alone (96).

Studies of nutritional muscular dystrophy are of course, of importance because the lesions are identical with those which are seen in many instances of human disease. A further problem of great interest is the relationship of the development of dystrophic lesions to nerve supply. It will be recalled that when the nerves to a leg are cut morphological change in the muscle fail to appear when the animal is placed on a vitamin E-deficient diet. It would be interesting to compare the respiration of such muscle *in vitro* with that from the opposite side and normal controls. Whether motor sensory or sympathetic fibers are responsible is, of course, another intriguing question.

Involuntary Muscle In Mammalia no lesions have been described as yet in the smooth muscle of animals deficient in one or more of the essential nutrients. Pigment, of course, occurs in smooth muscle of vitamin E-deficient animals (425-428) but the significance of this deposit is not clear at this time.

Nervous Tissues

Peripheral Nerves Lesions consisting of myelin degeneration have been noted in the peripheral nerves in a number of deficient states. However many of these reports indicate that the diets employed have been lacking in several essential nutrients. In addition whether the site of the lesions is in the motor or sensory fibers has in most instances not been determined. A fairly accurate estimation of which type of nerve is affected can be obtained by examining the cells of the anterior horns and dorsal ganglia as well as the ventral and dorsal roots. Specific alterations of the sensory neuron have been produced in swine on diets deficient in pantothenic and/or pyridoxine (611). The motor neuron is not involved by a deficiency of either of these two nutrients since degeneration of the ventral roots and anterior horn

the following years there was confusion over the exact relationship of vitamin P to the scorbutic state. However, some reports seem to indicate that vitamin P is important in maintaining the integrity of capillaries even when ascorbic acid is present (786, 789). At the present time it is wise to withhold judgment awaiting further investigations.

Blood Clotting Mechanism Nutritional deficiencies play an important role in disturbances of the coagulation of blood since two very important factors in blood-clotting are affected: prothrombin and calcium. The first, of course, is dependent on an adequate ingestion and absorption of vitamin K and has been discussed elsewhere (page 128). Hemorrhage is also a manifestation of experimental calcium deficiency (36, 42) since calcium ions are necessary for the reaction $\text{prothrombin} \rightarrow \text{thrombin}$. A deficiency in fibrinogen can conceivably occur as the result of lack of dietary amino acids though no specific experimental evidence is available on this point.

Muscle Tissues

Cardiac Muscle Necrosis of myocardial fibers has been found to result from both potassium (page 33) and thiamine (page 146) deficiencies. In either case, individual or groups of muscle fibers lose their striations and become hyaline and necrotic. There is a varying degree of cellular infiltration. If the animal survives long enough connective tissue scars replace the areas where muscle fibers have been destroyed. In potassium deficiency the lesions tend to predominate in the ventricular musculature, little change has been noted in the auricles. In contrast the latter tissues of thiamine-deficient animals seem to be affected before the ventricles but later the walls of all chambers are severely involved. It is of interest that in rats at least, when potassium and thiamine deficiencies are produced simultaneously, no myocardial necroses develop. It is of some interest, though the significance is not at all clear, that when large amounts of ethyl hurite (35-40 percent) are incorporated in a choline deficient diet myocardial necroses similar to those encountered in potassium or thiamine-deficient animals are found in rats (779). A combination of these might yield interesting results.

Rats placed on vitamin E rations for prolonged periods exhibit extensive scarring of the myocardium (425). Apparently there is first a deposition of ceroid in the myocardial fibers followed by necroses. Connective tissue is found about the bundles of muscle fibers and imbedded in the collagen are macrophages filled with this acid fast pigment. Dr. Karl E. Mason has kindly allowed us to examine his material. The histological picture is strikingly different from that which is seen when potassium or thiamine deficiencies are present. The chronicity and presence of ceroid are doubtless only two of

Central Nervous System Before commenting on the morphological lesions which may be produced in the brain when animals are placed on deficient diets certain well defined manifestations of physiological disturbance must be mentioned. In several species a peculiar syndrome of hyper-excitability followed by tonic convulsions has been produced by deficiencies of either magnesium (54, 55) or pyridoxine (654, 655). In swine deficient in the latter nutrient and exhibiting such signs no pathological alterations have been detected in the brain. This is to be expected since such animals may spontaneously recover from an attack or may be cured by the administration of appropriate amounts of the missing nutrient. It is of interest that similar attacks have been observed in rats on a potassium deficient diet which had been supplemented with either rubidium or cesium in order to replace the missing essential nutrient (94). Inasmuch as all of these peculiar convulsions seem to involve the muscular system as well as the nervous tissues the possibility that the former may also play a role must not be lost sight of. Until pointed physiological studies are carried out the exact locale or locales responsible for these syndromes must be held in abeyance. It would be most interesting to observe the electroencephalographic pattern of animals exhibiting such seizures.

Perhaps the most extensive morphological lesions which have been reported to result from deficiency of a single nutrient are those which occur in the brain when dietary copper is inadequate (144, 145). Virtually complete destruction of the white matter has been found in the tissues of newborn lambs whose mothers apparently had insufficient dietary copper. The lesions are of great interest to the neuropathologist since they closely resemble crises of progressive symmetrical demyelination which are observed in man. Morphological changes in the brain as a result of other deficiencies are not at all clear cut, thiamine deficiency leads to physiological disturbances and these, as well as morphological alterations have been described elsewhere (page 152).

Cerebral hemorrhage resulting from low prothrombin levels has been noted in vitamin K-deficient animals and a similar state of affairs may be responsible for the hemorrhages which have been noted in choline-deficient rats. In this instance one must postulate that the liver is damaged (there is of course, morphological and biochemical evidence that it is) and is unable to form adequate amounts of prothrombin. The hemorrhages which are said to occur in calcium deficient animals should be further studied.

Vitamin A deficiency provides an excellent technique with which to study the effects of increased intracranial pressure since it will be recalled that the brain of young animals deficient in this nutrient continues to grow while its bony covering stops increasing in size. The effects of pressure on

cells is not observed. In pyridoxine-deficient animals the initial site of injury is in the peripheral nerves where myelin degeneration appears, such changes being noted before degenerative phenomenon appear in the ganglion cells of the dorsal roots. As the deficiency progresses the dorsal root fibers and ascending tracts of the spinal cord are involved but during the course of the disease chromatolysis is not observed in the cell body although atrophy and necrosis occur. In contrast the initial change in pantothenic acid deficient swine is dissolution of the Nissl substance, a phenomenon which precedes any morphologic evidence of degeneration of myelin and axoplasm of the peripheral or central portions of the nerve. As time goes on changes in these structures similar to those seen initially in pyridoxine deficiency appear, and, in addition, there is degeneration of the dorsal root fibers and the ascending tracts of the spinal cord. Thus there appear to be two different patterns in the pathogenesis of the changes in the sensory neuron in these deficient states and because of this difference the hypothesis has been presented that pyridoxine is intimately connected with the metabolism of myelin and that pantothenic acid affects the integrity of the cell body itself. Such a hypothesis based on morphological evidence alone requires further physiological confirmation. The subject is of great theoretical interest however, in view of the two types of neurological degeneration which one encounters in the nervous tissues of man, that is myelinoclastic disease such as multiple sclerosis in which the myelin is primarily affected and polioclastic disease such as epidemic encephalitis in which the cell body is first injured and myelin degeneration is secondary. The effects of these two deficiencies on the nervous tissues of other species should be studied in order to confirm or reject the observations which have been reported in swine.

As was noted above data on changes in the peripheral nervous tissues in other deficient states are very inadequate. Degeneration of the sensory neuron has been observed in a few swine placed on a diet low in protein content and deficient in nicotinic acid as well (592). So too myelin degeneration has been observed in representatives of several species deficient in riboflavin (553, 555-556, 563). In such animals, the site of lesions whether in the sensory or motor fibers has not been determined as yet. It will be recalled that in Mammalia there is no good evidence that thiamine deficiency alone leads to degeneration of the peripheral nerves, the question of its relationship to the integrity of this portion of the nervous system requires further study in birds.

From the investigations already reported it is obvious that the metabolism of motor and sensory neurons is different. It would therefore seem desirable to study the respiration of these neurons *in vitro* and to determine the response of cells from deficient animals to the addition of certain specific nutrients already known to effect them.

Central Nervous System Before commenting on the morphological lesions which may be produced in the brain when animals are placed on deficient diets certain well defined manifestations of physiological disturbance must be mentioned. In several species a peculiar syndrome of hyper-excitability followed by tonic convulsions has been produced by deficiencies of either magnesium (54-55) or pyridoxine (654-655). In swine deficient in the latter nutrient and exhibiting such signs no pathological alterations have been detected in the brain. This is to be expected since such animals may spontaneously recover from an attack or may be cured by the administration of appropriate amounts of the missing nutrient. It is of interest that similar attacks have been observed in rats on a potassium deficient diet which had been supplemented with either rubidium or cesium in order to replace the missing essential nutrient (94). Inasmuch as all of these peculiar convulsions seem to involve the muscular system as well as the nervous tissues the possibility that the former may also play a role must not be lost sight of. Until pointed physiological studies are carried out the exact locale or locales responsible for these syndromes must be held in abeyance. It would be most interesting to observe the electroencephalographic pattern of animals exhibiting such seizures.

Perhaps the most extensive morphological lesions which have been reported to result from deficiency of a single nutrient are those which occur in the brain when dietary copper is inadequate (144-145). Virtually complete destruction of the white matter has been found in the tissues of newborn lambs whose mothers apparently had insufficient dietary copper. The lesions are of great interest to the neuropathologist since they closely resemble cases of progressive symmetrical demyelination which are observed in man. Morphological changes in the brain as a result of other deficiencies are not at all clear cut, thiamine deficiency leads to physiological disturbances and these, as well as morphological alterations have been described elsewhere (page 152).

Cerebral hemorrhage resulting from low prothrombin levels has been noted in vitamin K-deficient animals and a similar state of affairs may be responsible for the hemorrhages which have been noted in choline-deficient rats. In this instance one must postulate that the liver is damaged (there is of course morphological and biochemical evidence that it is) and is unable to form adequate amounts of prothrombin. The hemorrhages which are said to occur in calcium deficient animals should be further studied.

Vitamin A deficiency provides an excellent technique with which to study the effects of increased intracranial pressure since it will be recalled that the brain of young animals deficient in this nutrient continues to grow, while its bony covering stops increasing in size. The effects of pressure on

cells is not observed. In pyridoxine-deficient animals the initial site of injury is in the peripheral nerves where myelin degeneration appears, such changes being noted before degenerative phenomenon appear in the ganglion cells of the dorsal roots. As the deficiency progresses the dorsal root fibers and ascending tracts of the spinal cord are involved but during the course of the disease chromatolysis is not observed in the cell body although atrophy and necrosis occur. In contrast the initial change in pantothenic acid deficient swine is dissolution of the Nissl substance, a phenomenon which precedes any morphologic evidence of degeneration of myelin and atrophy of the peripheral or central portions of the nerve. As time goes on changes in these structures similar to those seen initially in pyridoxine deficiency appear, and, in addition, there is degeneration of the dorsal root fibers and the ascending tracts of the spinal cord. Thus there appear to be two different patterns in the pathogenesis of the changes in the sensory neuron in these deficient states and because of this difference the hypothesis has been presented that pyridoxine is intimately connected with the metabolism of myelin and that pantothenic acid affects the integrity of the cell body itself. Such a hypothesis based on morphologic evidence alone requires further physiological confirmation. The subject is of great theoretical interest, however in view of the two types of neurological degeneration which one encounters in the nervous tissues of man, that is myeloclastic disease such as multiple sclerosis in which the myelin is primarily affected and polioclastic disease such as epidemic encephalitis in which the cell body is first injured and myelin degeneration is secondary. The effects of these two deficiencies on the nervous tissues of other species should be studied in order to confirm or reject the observations which have been reported in swine.

As was noted above data on changes in the peripheral nervous tissues in other deficient states are very inadequate. Degeneration of the sensory neuron has been observed in a few swine placed on a diet low in protein content and deficient in nicotinic acid as well (592). So too myelin degeneration has been observed in representatives of several species deficient in riboflavin (553, 555, 556, 563). In such animals the site of lesions whether in the sensory or motor fibers has not been determined as yet. It will be recalled that in Mummalian there is no good evidence that thiamine deficiency alone leads to degeneration of the peripheral nerves; the question of its relationship to the integrity of this portion of the nervous system requires further study in birds.

From the investigations already reported it is obvious that the metabolism of motor and sensory neurons is different. It would therefore, seem desirable to study the respiration of these neurons *in vitro* and to determine the response of cells from deficient animals to the addition of certain specific nutrients already known to effect them.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1 LUNK, C. The etiology of the deficiency diseases Beriberi, polyneuritis in birds, epidemic dropsy, scurvy experimental scurvy in animals infantile scurvy ship beriberi, pellagra *J State Med* 20 341 1912
- 2 DANN, W J and DARRY, W J The appraisal of nutritional status (nutrition) in humans with especial reference to vitamin deficiency disease *Physiol Rev*, 25 326 1945
- 3 WOLBACH S B The pathologic changes resulting from vitamin deficiency *JAMA*, 108 7, 1937
- 4 *Medical Research Council* Report on the present state of knowledge of accessory food factors (vitamins) *Special report series, No 38* London 1924
- 5 WARKANY J Manifestations of prenatal nutritional deficiency *Vitamins and Hormones*, III 73 1945
- 6 BURKE, B S., BRUL, V A KIRKWOOD S B and STUART H C Nutrition studies during pregnancy *Am J Obst and Gynec*, 46 38 1943
- 7 HOOKER, C W and PFEIFFER, C A Effects of sex hormones upon body growth skin hair and sebaceous glands in the rat *Endocrinology*, 32 69 1943
- 8 BERRY, L J., DAVIS J and SHIES T C The relationship between diet and the mechanisms for defense against bacterial infections in rats *J Lab and Clin Med*, 30 684 1945
- 9 CANNON P R CHASE, W E and WISSLER R S The relationship of protein reserves to antibody production I The effects of a low protein diet and of plasmapheresis upon the formation of agglutinins *J Immunol*, 47 155, 1943
- 10 RASMUSSEN A F JR WAISMAN H A ELVEHJEM C A and CLARK P F Influence of the level of thiamine intake on the susceptibility of mice to poliomyelitis virus *J Infect Dis*, 74 41 1944
- 11 LICHSTEIN H C WAISMAN H A ELVEHJEM C A and CLARK, P F Influence of pantothenic acid deficiency on resistance of mice to experimental poliomyelitis *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 56 3 1944
- 12 RASMUSSEN A F JR WAISMAN H A and LICHSTEIN H C. Influence of riboflavin on susceptibility of mice to experimental poliomyelitis *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 57 92 1944
- 13 LICHSTEIN H C WAISMAN H A, McCALL K B ELVEHJEM C A and CLARK P F Influence of pyridoxine, inositol and biotin on susceptibility of swiss mice to experimental poliomyelitis *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 60 279 1945
- 14 CARRUTHERS, C and SUNTZEFF V Copper and zinc in epidermal carcinogenesis induced by methylcholanthrene *J Biol Chem*, 159 647 1945
- 15 WOOLLEY G W and DICKIE M M Pirouetting mice *J Heredity*, 36 281 1945
- 16 SCHWEIGERT B S SHAW J H ELVEHJEM C A and PHILLIPS P H Dental caries in the cotton rat V Influence of strain variation on the caries susceptibility *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 59 44 1945

neurons and the development of papilledema would seem two subjects which could be investigated by this means

Deficiency disease therefore affords the neuropathologist a potent tool with which to study some of the fundamental reactions to injury in the central nervous system and it is to be hoped that such techniques will be applied in the future. It may, of course, be added that competent neurohistologists can doubtless add a great deal to the studies already reported and should also find the investigation of other deficiency states of interest

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- 1 FUNK C. The etiology of the deficiency diseases Beriberi polyneuritis in birds epidemic dropsy, scurvy experimental scurvy in animals infantile scurvy, ship beriberi pellagra *J State Med*, 20 341 1912
- 2 DANN, W. J., and DARBY, W. J. The appraisal of nutritional status (nutrition) in humans with especial reference to vitamin deficiency disease *Physiol Rev*, 25 326 1945
- 3 WOLRICH S. B. The pathologic changes resulting from vitamin deficiency *J A M A*, 108 7, 1937
- 4 *Medical Research Council* Report on the present state of knowledge of accessory food factors (vitamins) *Special report series*, No 38 London, 1924
- 5 WARKANY J. Manifestations of prenatal nutritional deficiency *Vitamins and Hormones*, III 73, 1945
- 6 BURKE, B. S., BEAL, V. A., KIRKWOOD S. B., and STUART H. C. Nutrition studies during pregnancy *Am J Obst and Gynec*, 46 38 1943
- 7 HOOKER, C. W. and PFEIFFER, C. A. Effects of sex hormones upon body growth skin hair and sebaceous glands in the rat *Endocrinology*, 32 69 1943
- 8 BERRY L. J., DAVIS J., and SPIES T. C. The relationship between diet and the mechanisms for defense against bacterial infections in rats *J Lab and Clin Med*, 30 684 1945
- 9 CANNON P. R., CHASE, W. E. and WISSLER, R. S. The relationship of protein reserves to antibody production I The effects of a low protein diet and of plasmapheresis upon the formation of agglutinins *J Immunol* 47 133 1943
- 10 RASMUSSEN A. F., JR., WAISMAN H. A., ELVEHJEM C. A., and CLARK P. F. Influence of the level of thiamine intake on the susceptibility of mice to poliomyelitis virus *J Infect Dis* 54 41 1944
- 11 LICHSTEIN H. C., WAISMAN H. A., ELVEHJEM C. A. and CLARK P. F. Influence of pantothenic acid deficiency on resistance of mice to experimental poliomyelitis *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 56 3, 1944
- 12 RASMUSSEN A. F. JR., WAISMAN H. A. and LICHSTEIN H. C. Influence of riboflavin on susceptibility of mice to experimental poliomyelitis *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 57 92 1944
- 13 LICHSTEIN H. C., WAISMAN H. A., MCCALL, K. B., ELVEHJEM, C. A., and CLARK P. F. Influence of pyridoxine inositol and biotin on susceptibility of swiss mice to experimental poliomyelitis *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 60 279 1945
- 14 CARRUTHERS C., and SUNTZEFF V. Copper and zinc in epidermal carcinogenesis induced by methylcholanthrene *J Biol Chem*, 159 647 1945
- 15 WOOLLEY G. W., and DICKIE, M. M. Pirouetting mice *J Heredity*, 36 281 1945
- 16 SCHWEIGERT B. S., SHAW J. H., ELVEHJEM C. A., and PHILLIPS P. H. Dental caries in the cotton rat V Influence of strain variation on the caries susceptibility *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 59 44 1945

- 17 JACKSON, C M *The Effects of Inanition and Malnutrition upon Growth and Structure* P Blakiston's Sons and Company, Philadelphia, 1925
- 18 WELCH, A D Interference with biological processes through the use of analogs of essential metabolites *Physiol Rev*, 25 687, 1945
- 19 LASNITZKI, A and BREWER, A K A study of the isotopic constitution of potassium in various rat tissues *Biochem J*, 35 144 1941
- 20 HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A, and HART, E B Boron in animal nutrition *Am J Physiol*, 127 689 1939
- 21 ORENT-LIFILES, L The role of boron in the diet of the rat *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 44 199 1940
- 22 WRIGHT, N C and PALISH, J The inorganic constituents of milk *Science*, 69 76 1929
- 23 BLUMBERG, H and RASK, O S The spectrographic analysis of milk ashes *J Nutrition* 6 285 1933
- 24 SHELDON, J H, and RAMACK, H A spectrographic analysis of human tissues *Biochem J* 25 1605, 1931
- 25 RUSOFF, L L and GADDUM, I W The trace element content of the newborn rat (as determined spectrographically) *J Nutrition*, 15 169, 1938
- 26 HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A, and HART, E B Aluminum in the nutrition of the rat *Am J Physiol*, 125 640 1938
- 27 RALEIGH, G J Evidence for the essentiality of silicon for growth of the beet plant *Plant Physiol*, 14 823, 1939
- 28 UCKO, H Investigations into the presence and the role of bromine in the body *Biochem J*, 30 992 1936
- 29 SCOTT, G H and CANAGA, B I Cesium in the mammalian retina *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 40 275 1939
- 30 RAMACK, H and SHELDON, J H Mineral content of eyes *Nature*, 128 376 1931
- 31 DANIEL, I P and HILWSON, E H Vanadium—A consideration of its possible biological role *Am J Physiol*, 136 772 1942
- 32 KEHOE, R A CHAIKIN, J and STORY, R V Spectrochemical study of the normal ranges of concentration of certain trace metals in biological materials *J Nutrition* 19 579 1940
- 33 TARVER, H and SCHMIDT, C L A The conversion of methionine to cystine. Experiments with radioactive sulfur *J Biol Chem*, 150 67 1939
- 34 LEWIS, G T and LEWIS, H B The metabolism of sulfur. XIII The effect of elementary sulfur on the growth of the young white rat *J Biol Chem*, 74 515, 1927
- 35 TARVER, H and SCHMIDT, C L A Radioactive sulfur studies. III Distribution of sulfur* in the proteins of animals fed sulfur* or methionine* *J Biol Chem*, 146 69 1942
- 36 MARTIN, G J Calcium deficiency syndrome produced in growing animals *Growth*, 1 175, 1937
- 37 RINGER, S A further contribution regarding the influence of the different constituents of the blood on the contraction of the heart *J Physiol*, 4 29, 1883
- 38 GREEN, J R On certain points connected with the coagulation of the blood *J Physiol*, 9 354 1888

- 39 BOFILTER, M D D and GREENBERG D M Effect of severe calcium deficiency on pregnancy and lactation in the rat *J Nutrition*, 26 105, 1943
- 40 CHAMBERS, R and ZWEIFACH, B W Capillary endothelial cement in relation to permeability *J Cell & Comp Phys*, 15 255, 1940
- 41 ZWEIFACH B W The structural basis of permeability and other functions of blood capillaries *Cold Spring Harbor Symposium on Quantitative Biology*, 8 216 1940
- 42 BOFILTER M D D and GREENBERG D M Severe calcium deficiency in growing rats I Symptoms and pathology *J Nutrition*, 21 61 1941
- 43 BOFILTER M D D, and GREENBERG D M II Changes in chemical composition *J Nutrition*, 21 75 1941
- 44 ZUCKER T F, BERG B N and ZUCKER L M Nutritional effects on the gastric mucosa of the rat I Lesions of the antrum *J Nutrition*, 30 301 1945
- 45 DEROBERTIS E The cytology of the parathyroid and thyroid glands of rats with experimental rickets *Anat Rec*, 79 417 1941
- 46 SWANN K C and SALIT P W Lens opacities associated with experimental calcium deficiency *Am J Ophth*, 24 611 1941
- 47 MCCOLLUM E V and ORENT E R Effects on the rat of deprivation of magnesium *J Biol Chem*, 92 XXX (Soc Proc) 1931
- 48 MORCULIS S Studies on the chemical composition of bone ash *J Biol Chem*, 95 455 1931
- 49 GAMBLE J L *Chemical Anatomy Physiology and Pathology of Extracellular Fluid* Boston 1941
- 50 MELTZER S J and AUER J The antagonistic action of calcium upon the inhibitory effect of magnesium *Am J Physiol* 21 400 1908
- 51 KRUSE H D, SCHMIDT M M and MCCOLLUM E V Studies on magnesium deficiency in animals IV Reaction to galvanic stimuli following magnesium deprivation *Am J Physiol* 105 635 1933
- 52 JENNER, H D., and KAY H D The phosphatases of mammalian tissues III Magnesium and the phosphatase systems *J Biol Chem*, 93 733, 1931
- 53 BANGA I, OCHOA S and PETERS R A Pyruvate oxidation in brain VII Some dialysable components of the pyruvate oxidation system *Biochem J* 33 1980 1939
- 54 KRUSE H D, ORENT E and MCCOLLUM E V Studies on magnesium deficiency in animals I Symptomatology resulting from magnesium deficiency *J Biol Chem*, 96 519, 1932
- 55 ORENT, E, KRUSE H D., and MCCOLLUM, E V Studies on magnesium deficiency in animals II Species variation in symptomatology of magnesium deprivation *Am J Physiol*, 101 545 1932
- 56 TUFTS E V and GREENBERG D M Nature of magnesium tetany *Am J Physiol* 121 416 1938
- 57 KRUSE, H D, ORENT E and MCCOLLUM E V Studies on magnesium deficiency in animals III Chemical changes in the blood following magnesium deprivation *J Biol Chem*, 100 603 1933
- 58 KRUSE, H D, SCHMIDT, M M and MCCOLLUM E. V Studies on magnesium deficiency in animals V Changes in the mineral metabolism of animals following magnesium deprivation *J Biol Chem* 106 553 1934

- 59 SNYDER, F H and TWEEDY, W R The effects of a magnesium deficient diet on the serum phosphatase activity in the albino rat *J Biol Chem* 146 639 1942
- 60 SULLIVAN M and EVANS, V J Nutritional dermatosis in the rat IX Evaluation of the interrelationships of magnesium deficiency and deficiencies of the vitamin B complex *J Nutrition*, 27 123 1944
- 61 MACCARDLE, R C ENGMAN, M F, JR, and ENGMAN, F M Spectrographic analysis of neurodermatitic lesions *Arch Dermat and Syph*, 44 429 1941
- 62 MACCARDLE, R C ENGMAN, M F JR and ENGMAN, F M Mineral changes in neurodermatitis revealed by microincineration *Arch Dermat and Syph*, 47 33 1941
- 63 SULLIVAN M and EVANS, V J Nutritional dermatosis in the rat X A comparison of disseminated neurodermatitis and experimental magnesium deficiency *Arch Dermat and Syph*, 49 33 1944
- 64 CRAMER, W Experimental production of kidney lesions by diet *Lancet*, 2 174, 1932
- 65 WATCHORN E and McCANCE R A Subacute magnesium deficiency in rats *Biochem J*, 51 1379, 1937
- 66 GREENBERG, D M, LUCIA, S P and TUFTS, E V The effects of magnesium deprivation on renal function *Am J Physiol*, 121 424, 1938
- 67 KLINE, H ORENT E R and MCCOLLUM E V Effects of magnesium deficiency on teeth and their supporting structures in rats *Am J Physiol* 112 256 1935
- 68 BICKS H and FURUTA, W J Effects of magnesium deficient diets on oral and dental structures I Changes in the enamel epithelium *J Am Dent A*, 26 883 1939
- 69 BICKS, H and FURUTA W J II Changes in the enamel structure *J Am Dent A*, 28 1083 1941
- 70 BICKS, H and FURUTA W J III Changes in the dentine and pulp tissue *Am J Orthodont and O S*, 28 1 1942
- 71 IRVING, J T The influence of diets low in magnesium upon the histological appearance of the incisor tooth of the rat *J Physiol*, 99 8 1940
- 72 GAGNON J A SCHOUR I and PATRAS M D Effect of magnesium deficiency on dentine apposition and eruption in incisor of rat *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 49 662 1942
- 73 DUCKWORTH, J and GODDEN W The influence of diets low in magnesium upon the chemical composition of the incisor tooth of the rat *J Physiol*, 99 1, 1940
- 74 DUCKWORTH J, and GODDEN W The liability of skeletal magnesium reserves The influence of rates of bone growth *Biochem J*, 35 816, 1941
- 75 ORENT, E, KRUSE H D and MCCOLLUM E V Studies on magnesium deficiency in animals VI Chemical changes in the bone with associated blood changes resulting from magnesium deprivation *J Biol Chem* 106 573, 1934
- 76 MILLER J F Tetany due to deficiency in magnesium Its occurrence in a child of six years with associated osteochondrosis of carpal epiphysis of femur (Legg-Perthes Disease) *Am J Dis Child* 67 117 1944

- 77 OSBORNE, T B and MENDEL, L B The inorganic elements in nutrition *J Biol Chem*, 34 131, 1918
- 78 ORENT-KEILES F and McCOLLUM, E V Potassium in animal nutrition *J Biol Chem*, 140 337, 1941
- 79 GERSH, I Improved histochemical methods for chloride, phosphate carbonate and potassium applied to skeletal muscle *Anat Rec*, 70 311, 1938
- 80 AVELROD, A C, SOBIR, H A and ELVEHJEM, C A The d-amino oxidase content of rat tissues in riboflavin deficiency *J Biol Chem*, 134 749 1940
- 81 HOFF H E, HU D G and WINKLER A W Concentration of potassium in serum and response to vagal stimulation in the dog *Am J Physiol*, 142 627, 1944
- 82 FERREBE J W GFRITY, M K, ATCHLEY, D W and LOEB, R F Behavior of electrolytes in familial periodic paralysis *Arch Neurol and Psychiat* 44 830 1940
- 83 BOYER P D LARDY, H A and PHILLIPS P H Further studies on the role of potassium and other ions in the phosphorylation of the adenylic system *J Biol Chem*, 149 529 1943
- 94 WELSH J H and HYDE J C The effects of potassium on the synthesis of acetylcholine in brain *Am J Physiol*, 142 512 1944
- 85 FENN W O Potassium in physiological processes *Physiol Rev*, 20 377 1940
- 86 THOMAS R M, MYLON E and WINTERITZ M C Myocardial lesions resulting from dietary deficiency *Yale J Biol and Med*, 12 345 1940
- 87 FOLLIS R H, JR ORENT-KEILES E and McCOLLUM E V The production of cardiac and renal lesions in rats by a diet extremely deficient in potassium *Am J Path*, 18 29 1942
- 88 KORNBERG A and ENDICOTT, K M Potassium deficiency in the rat *Am J Physiol*, 145 291, 1946
- 89 LIEBOW, A A McFARLAND W J and TENNANT R The effects of potassium deficiency on tumor bearing mice *Yale J Biol and Med*, 13 523, 1941
- 90 RUEGAMER, W R ELVEHJEM C A and HART E B Potassium deficiency in the dog *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 61 234, 1946
- 91 SYKES J F and ALFREDSON, B V Studies on the bovine electrocardiogram I Electrocardiographic changes in calves on low potassium rations *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 43 575, 1940
- 92 SYKES J F and MOORE L A Lesions of the purkinje network of the bovine heart as a result of potassium deficiency *Arch Path* 33 467 1942
- 93 FOLLIS R H JR Effect of exercise on rats fed a diet deficient in potassium *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 51 71, 1942
- 94 FOLLIS R H, JR Histological effects in rats resulting from adding rubidium or cesium to a diet deficient in potassium *Am J Physiol*, 138 246 1943
- 95 SKINNER J T and MCHARGUE J S Response of rats to boron supplements when fed rations low in potassium *Am J Physiol*, 143 385, 1945
- 96 FOLLIS R H JR Myocardial necroses in rats on a potassium low diet prevented by thiamine deficiency *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp* 71 235 1942

- 97 DARROW, D C and MILLER H C The production of cardiac lesions by repeated injections of desoxycorticosterone acetate *J Clin Invest*, 21 601 1942
- 98 DARROW D C Effect of low potassium diet and desoxycorticosterone on the rat heart *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 55 13 1944
- 99 SELBY H, and PRINZ, I I Pathogenetical correlations between periarteritis nodosa, renal hypertension and rheumatic lesions *Canad M A J* 49 264, 1943
- 100 MILLER H C, and DARROW, D C Relation of serum and muscle electrolyte particularly potassium to voluntary exercise *Am J Physiol*, 137 801 1941
- 101 CARPES, W H RAGAN, C, FERREBEI, J W, and ONLILL, J Effects of desoxycorticosterone acetate in the albino rat *Endocrinology*, 29 144 1941
- 102 KUHLMANN, D, RAGAN, C FERREBEI, J W, ATCHLEY, D, and LOEB, R I Toxic effects of desoxycorticosterone esters in dogs *Science*, 90 496 1939
- 103 DURLACHER, S H, DARROW, D C, and WINTERMUTZ M C The effect of low potassium diet and of desoxycorticosterone acetate upon renal size *Am J Physiol*, 136 346 1942
- 104 FERREBEI, J W RAGAN C ATCHLEY, D W, and LOEB, R I Desoxycorticosterone esters Certain effects in the treatment of Addison's disease *J A M A*, 113 1725, 1939
- 105 GOODOR J I, and MACBRIDE C M Heart failure in Addison's disease with myocardial changes of potassium deficiency *J Clin Endocrinol*, 4 30, 1944
- 106 ST JOHN, J L Growth on a synthetic ration containing small amounts of sodium *J Biol Chem*, 77 27, 1928
- 107 ORENT-KEILES L ROBINSON, A and MCCOLLUM, E V The effects of sodium deprivation on the animal organism *Am J Physiol*, 119 651, 1937
- 108 MCCANCE R A Medical problems in mineral metabolism *Lancet*, 1 823 1936
- 109 ORENT-KEILES L and MCCOLLUM L V Mineral metabolism of rats on an extremely sodium deficient diet *J Biol Chem*, 133 75 1940
- 110 FOLLIS R H, JR, ORENT-KEILES, F, and MCCOLLUM, E V Histologic studies of the tissues of rats fed a diet extremely low in sodium *Arch Path*, 53 504 1942
- 111 GROLLMAN, A and HARRISON T R Effect of rigid sodium restriction on blood pressure and survival of hypertensive rats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 60 52, 1945
- 112 TURFINEN O Studies on sodium deficiency The effects of sodium deprivation on young puppies *Am J Hyg*, 28 104, 1938
- 113 SCHNEIDER, H, and STERNROCK, H A low phosphorus diet and the response of rats to vitamin D *J Biol Chem*, 128 159 1939
- 114 DAY, H G, and MCCOLLUM, E V Mineral metabolism, growth and symptomatology of rats on a diet extremely deficient in phosphorus *J Biol Chem*, 130 269, 1939

- 115 IOLIS, R. H., JR., DAY, H. G., and McCOLLUM, E. V. Histological studies of the tissues of rats fed a diet extremely low in phosphorus. *J Nutrition*, 20 181, 1940
- 116 PARK, L. A., and HOWLAND, J. The dangers to life of severe involvement of the thorax in rickets. *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 32 101, 1921
- 117 SCHNIDLER, H., and STEINBOCK, H. Calcium citrate uroliths on a low phosphorus diet. *J Urol*, 45 339, 1940
- 118 FREEMAN, S., and McFARLANE, F. C. Experimental rickets. Blood and tissue changes in puppies receiving a diet very low in phosphorus with and without vitamin D. *Arch Path*, 52 387, 1941
- 119 VORIS, L., and THACHER, E. J. The effects of the substitution of bicarbonate for chloride in the diet of rats on growth, energy, and protein metabolism. *J Nutrition*, 23 365, 1942
- 120 THACHER, E. J. The mineral composition of the albino rat as affected by chloride deficiency. *J Nutrition*, 26 431, 1943
- 121 GREENBERG, D. M., and CUTHBERTSON, E. M. Dietary chloride deficiency and alkalosis in the rat. *J Biol Chem*, 145 179, 1942
- 122 CUTHBERTSON, E. M., and GREENBERG, D. M. Chemical and pathological changes in dietary chloride deficiency in the rat. *J Biol Chem*, 160 83, 1945
- 123 HAHN, P. F., BALE, W. F., LAWRENCE, E. O., and WHIPPLE, G. H. Radioactive iron and its metabolism in anemia. Its absorption, transportation, and utilization. *J Exper Med*, 69 739, 1939
- 124 MOORE, C. V., DUBACH, R., MINNICH, V., and ROBERTS, H. K. Absorption of ferrous and ferric radioactive iron by human subjects and by dogs. *J Clin Invest*, 23 755, 1944
- 125 METTIER, S. R., and MINOR, G. R. The effect of iron on blood formation as influenced by changing acidity of the gastro intestinal contents in certain cases of anemia. *Am J Med Sci*, 181 25, 1931
- 126 MADDOCK, S., and HEATH, C. W. Is iron excreted by the gastro intestinal tract of the dog? *Arch Int Med*, 63 584, 1939
- 127 HEATH, C. W. Iron in nutrition. Requirements for iron. *J A M A*, 120 366, 1942
- 128 KEILIN, D., and MANN, T. Trace elements in relation to physiological function and enzyme systems. *Proc Nutr Soc Canbr*, 1 189, 1944
- 129 COOK, S. F. The structure and composition of hemosiderin. *J Biol Chem*, 82 595, 1929
- 130 MACCALLUM, A. B. Die Methoden und Ergebnisse der Mikrochemie in der biologischen Forschung. *Ergeb Physiol*, 7 552, 1908
- 131 SMITH, S. E., and MEDLICOTT, M. The blood picture of iron and copper deficiency anemias in the rat. *Am J Physiol*, 141 354, 1944
- 132 SMITH, S. E., MEDLICOTT, M., and ELLIS, G. H. The blood picture of iron and copper deficiency anemias in the rabbit. *Am J Physiol*, 142 179, 1944
- 133 SCHULTZE, M. O. The effect of deficiencies in copper and iron on the cytochrome oxidase of rat tissues. *J Biol Chem*, 129 729, 1939
- 134 SCHULTZE, M. O. The relation of copper to cytochrome oxidase and hematopoietic activity of the bone marrow of rats. *J Biol Chem*, 138 219, 1941

- 135 SCHULTZE M O The use of radioactive copper in studies on nutritional anemia of rats *J Biol Chem*, 142 97, 1942
- 136 SCOTT, E M, and MCCOY, R H Iron in anemic rat tissues *Arch Biochem*, 5 349, 1944
- 137 KEIL, H L, and NIELSON, V L The role of copper in hemoglobin regeneration and reproduction *J Biol Chem*, 93 49 1931
- 138 HENDERSON L M, MCINTIRE J M, WEISSMAN H A and ELAHIJEM C A Pantothenic acid in the nutrition of the rat *J Nutrition*, 25 47, 1942
- 139 BENNETTS H W, and CHAPMAN, F L Copper deficiency in sheep in Western Australia A preliminary account of the etiology of enzootic atrophy of limbs and an anemia of ewes *Aust Vet J*, 13 138, 1937
- 140 DUNLOP G, and WELLS H E 'Warrick' (Swayback) in lambs in North Derbyshire and its prevention by adding copper supplements to the diet of ewes during gestation *Vet Rec*, 50 1175, 1938
- 141 EDEN, A, HUNTER A H and GREEN, H H Contributions to the study of swayback in lambs II Blood copper investigations *J Comp Path*, 55 29, 1945
- 142 DUNLOP G, INNES, J R M, SHEARER, G D and WELLS, H E Swayback studies in North Derbyshire I The feeding of copper to pregnant ewes in the control of swayback *J Comp Path*, 52 259, 1939
- 143 HUNTER, A H, EDEN, A and GREEN, H H Contributions to the study of swayback in lambs I Field experiments *J Comp Path*, 55 19, 1945
- 144 INNES J R M The pathology of swayback—a congenital demyelinating disease of lambs with affinities to Schilder's encephalitis *Rep Inst Animal Path*, Cambridge, 4 227, 1934
- 145 INNES J R M and SHEARER G D Swayback' A demyelinating disease of lambs with affinities to Schilder's encephalitis in man *J Comp Path*, 55 1 1940
- 146 BENNETTS H W, HARLEY R and EVANS S T Studies on copper deficiency of cattle the fatal termination ('Falling disease') *Aust Vet J*, 18 50 1942
- 147 WALTNER, K and WALTNER, K Kobalt und Blut *Klin Wochenschr* 9 313 1929
- 148 WARREN C O, SCHUBMEHL Q D and WOOD I R Studies on the mechanism of cobalt polycythemia *Am J Physiol* 142 173 1944
- 149 DORRANCE S R, THORN G W, CLINTON, M JR, EDWARDS H W, and FARBER S Effect of cobalt on work performance under conditions of anoxia *Am J Physiol*, 139 399 1943
- 150 UNDERWOOD E J, and ELAHIJEM C A Is cobalt of any significance in the treatment of mill anemia with iron and copper? *J Biol Chem*, 124 419 1938
- 151 FROST D V, ELAHIJEM, C A and HART E B A study of the need for cobalt in dogs on mill diets *J Nutrition*, 21 93, 1941
- 152 FILMER, J F Enzootic marasmus of cattle and sheep Preliminary report having special reference to iron and liver therapy *Aust Vet J*, 9 163 1933
- 153 UNDERWOOD, E J Enzootic marasmus Iron content of liver kidney and spleen *Aust Vet J* 10 87 1934

- 154 FILMER J F., and UNDERWOOD E. J. Enzootic marasmus Treatment with limonite fractions *Aust Vet J*, 10 83, 1934
- 155 UNDERWOOD E. J., and FILMER, J F The determination of the biologically potent element cobalt in limonite *Aust Vet J*, 11 84 1935
- 156 MARSTON, H R Problems associated with coast disease in South Australia *Comm Aust J Couns Sc Ind Res*, 8 111 1935
- 157 LINES E. W The effect of the ingestion of minute quantities of cobalt by sheep affected with coast disease a preliminary report *Comm Aust J Couns Sc Ind Res*, 8 117, 1935
- 158 BULL, L B., MARSTON H R., MURNANE, D., and LINES E. W L. Ataxia in young lambs *Bull Couns Sci Ind Res Aust*, 113 23, 1938
- 159 MARSTON H R., and McDONALD I W The effects which follow treatment of coast disease in mature ewes with cobalt, copper and other elements *Bull Couns Sci Ind Res Aust*, 113 72, 1938
- 160 MOORE, H O Iron and copper in organs from sheep with coast disease *Bull Couns Sci Ind Res Aust* 113 86 1938
- 161 NEAL, W M., and AHMANN C. F The essentiality of cobalt in bovine nutrition *J Dairy Sci*, 20 741 1937
- 162 KEMMERER, A R., ELVEHJEM C. A., and HART, E B Studies on the relation of manganese to the nutrition of the mouse *J Biol Chem* 92 623 1931
- 163 ORENT E., and MCCOLLUM E. V Effects of deprivation of manganese in the rat *J Biol Chem* 92 651 1931
- 164 REIMAN C. K., and MINOT A S A method for manganese quantification in biological material together with data on the manganese content of human blood and tissues *J Biol Chem* 42 329 1920
- 165 CLOETJES R Aktivierung und Hemmung der alkalischen Phosphatasen *Naturwissenschaften* 27 806 1939
- 166 RICHARDS M M., and HELLERMAN L Activation of Enzymes VI Purified liver arginase reversible inactivation and reactivation *J Biol Chem* 134 237 1940
- 167 ORENT E., and MCCOLLUM E. V The estural cycle in rats on a manganese-free diet *J Biol Chem* 98 101 1932
- 168 DANIELS A L., and EVERSON G J The relation of manganese to congenital debility *J Nutrition* 9 191 1935
- 169 SHILS M E., and MCCOLLUM E. V Further studies on the symptoms of manganese deficiency in the rat and mouse *J Nutrition* 26 1 1943
- 170 BOYER P D., SHAW J H., and PHILLIPS P H Studies on manganese deficiency in the rat *J Biol Chem*, 143 417 1942
- 171 BARNES L L., SPERLING G., and MAYNARD L A Bone development in the albino rat on a low manganese diet *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 46 562 1941
- 172 SMITH S E., MEDLICOTT M., and ELLIS G H Manganese deficiency in the rabbit *Arch Biochem* 4 281 1944
- 173 AMBLER, M O., NORRIS L C., and HELSER, G F The need for manganese in bone development by the rat *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med.*, 59 254 1945
- 174 TODD W R., ELVEHJEM C. A., and HART E. B Zinc in the nutrition of the rat *Am J Physiol* 107 146 1934

- 175 KILIN, D and MANN, T Carbonic anhydrase *Nature*, 144 442, 1939
- 176 HOLMELER, C G Uricase purification and properties *Biochem J*, 22 1901, 1939
- 177 CLOFFENS, R Reversible cleavage of the second metal of alkaline phosphatase, *Biochem Zeitschr*, 308 37, 1941
- 178 HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A, and HART, E B The effect of zinc on alkaline phosphatases *J Biol Chem*, 134 425, 1940
- 179 LUTZ, R E The normal occurrence of zinc in biologic materials a review of the literature, and a study of the normal distribution of zinc in the rat and man *J Indust Hyg*, 8 177 1926
- 180 DRINKER, K R and COLLIER, E S The significance of zinc in the living organism *J Indust Hyg*, 8 257 1926
- 181 SHELINE, G E, CHAIKOFF, I L, JONES, H B, and MONTGOMERY, M Studies on the metabolism of zinc with the aid of its radioactive isotope I The excretion of zinc in the urine and feces *J Biol Chem*, 147 409 1943
- 182 SHELINE, G E, CHAIKOFF, I L, JONES, H B, and MONTGOMERY, M II The distribution of administered radioactive zinc in the tissues of mice and dogs *J Biol Chem* 149 139 1943
- 183 MONTGOMERY, M L, SHELINE, G E and CHAIKOFF, I L The elimination of administered zinc in pancreatic juice duodenal juice and bile of dogs as measured by its radioactive isotope (Zn^{65}) *J Exper Med*, 78 151 1943
- 184 DAY, H G, and McCOLLUM, E V Effects of acute dietary zinc deficiency in the rat *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 45 282 1940
- 185 FOLLIS, R H, JR, DAY, H G and McCOLLUM, E B Histological studies of the tissues of rats fed a diet extremely low in zinc *J Nutrition*, 22 223, 1941
- 186 DAY, H G The effects of zinc deficiency in the mouse *Fed Proc*, 1 188 1942
- 187 HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A and HART, E B The relation of zinc to carbonic anhydrase *J Biol Chem* 136 425 1940
- 188 WACHTEL, L W, HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A and HART, E B Blood uric acid and liver uricase of zinc-deficient rats on various diets *J Biol Chem*, 138 361 1941
- 189 HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A and HART, E B The physiology of zinc in the nutrition of the rat *Am J Physiol*, 119 768, 1937
- 190 HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A and HART, E B Further studies on zinc deficiency in rats *Am J Physiol* 124 750, 1938
- 191 PARK, E A, JACKSON, D, GOODWIN, T C and KAJDI, L X ray shadows in growing bones produced by lead, their characteristics cause anatomical counterpart in the bone and differentiation *J Pediat*, 3 265 1933
- 192 HOVE, E, ELVEHJEM, C A and HART, E B Arsenic in the nutrition of the rat *Am J Physiol*, 124 205, 1938
- 193 BAUMANN, E Ueber das normale Vorkommen von Jods in Thierkorper *Z f Physiol Chem*, 21 319 1895
- 194 PERLMAN, I, CHAIKOFF, I L and MORTON, M E Radioactive iodine as an indication of the metabolism of iodine I The turnover of iodine in the tissues of the normal animal with particular reference to the thyroid *J Biol Chem* 139 433 1941

- 195 PERLMAN, I MORTON, M E, and CHAIKOFF, I L Radioactive iodine as an indication of the metabolism of iodine II The rates of formation of thyroxine and diiodotyrosine by the intact normal thyroid gland *J Biol Chem*, 159 449 1941
- 196 FRANKLIN A L and CHAIKOFF I L The effect of sulfonamides on the conversion in vitro of inorganic iodide to thyroxine and diiodotyrosine by thyroid tissue with radioactive iodine as indicator *J Biol Chem*, 152 295 1944
- 197 RAWSON R W TANNHEIMER J F and PEACOCK W The uptake of radioactive iodine by the thyroids of rats made goiterous by potassium thiocyanate and by thiouracil *Endocrinology*, 34 245 1945
- 198 CHAIKOFF A The relation of the thyroid and the pituitary glands to iodine metabolism *Endocrinology*, 29 680 1941
- 199 ASTWOOD E B SULLIVAN, J BISSELL, A and TYSLOWITZ R Action of certain sulfonamides and of the thiourea upon the function of the thyroid gland of the rat *Endocrinology*, 32 210 1943
- 200 STARR P and ROSKELLY R A comparison of the effects of cold and thyrotropic hormone on the thyroid gland *Am J Physiol*, 150 549 1940
- 201 HELLWIG C A Iodine deficiency and goiter Influence of a diet poor in iodine on the thyroid gland of white rats *Arch Path*, 11 709 1931
- 202 LEVINE H REMINGTON R E, and von KOLNITZ H Studies on the relation of diet to goiter I A dietary technique for the study of goiter in the rat *J Nutrition*, 6 325 1933
- 203 THOMPSON, J The influence of the intake of calcium on the thyroid gland of the albino rat *Arch Path*, 16 211 1933
- 204 COPLAN H M, and SAMPSON M M The effects of a deficiency of iodine and vitamin A on the thyroid gland of the albino rat *J Nutrition*, 9 469 1935
- 205 HALPERSON A W SHAW J H and HART E B Goiter studies with the rat *J Nutrition* 30 59 1945
- 206 MACKENZIE C G and MACKENZIE J B Effect of sulfonamides and thioureas on the thyroid gland and basal metabolism *Endocrinology* 52 185 1943
- 207 HALSTED W S An experimental study of the thyroid gland of dogs with especial consideration of hypertrophy of this gland *Johns Hopkins Hosp Rep*, 1 373 1896
- 208 MARINE D and LENHART C H Effects of the administration or the withholding of iodine-containing compounds in normal colloid or actively hyperplastic (parenchymatous) thyroids of dogs *Arch Int Med*, 4 253 1909
- 209 SMITH G E Fetal athyrosis A study of the iodine requirement of the pregnant sow *J Biol Chem*, 29 215 1917
- 210 MARINE D and LENHART C H Relation of iodine to the structure of human thyroids Relation of iodine and histologic structure to diseases in general to exophthalmic goiter, to cretinism and myxedema *Arch Int Med*, 4 440 1909
- 211 MCCLENDON J F *Iodine and the Incidence of Goiter*, Minneapolis University of Minnesota Press, 1939

- 212 GREENWALD I The early history of goiter in the Americas, in New Zealand and in England. A contribution to the etiology of the disease *Bull Hist Med*, 17 229 1945
- 213 MARINE D and IENHART C H Colloid glands (goiters) their etiology and physiological significance *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 20 131, 1909
- 214 McCLENDON, J I Fluorine is necessary in the diet of the rat *Fed Proc* 3 94, 1944
- 215 SHARPLESS, G R, and MCCOLLUM, E V Is fluorine an indispensable element in the diet *J Nutrition*, 6 163 1933
- 216 EVANS, R J, and PHILLIPS, P H A new low fluorine diet and its effect upon the rat *J Nutrition*, 18 353, 1939
- 217 McCLENDON, J I, and FOSTER, W C The necessity of fluorine in the diet II *Fed Proc*, 4 159, 1945
- 218 SMITH M C LANTZ, E M and SMITH H V The cause of mottled enamel a defect of human teeth *Tech Bull* 22, *Univ Ariz Agr Exp Stat* 253 1931
- 219 DEAN H T and ELVOE L Further studies on the minimal threshold of chronic endemic dental fluorosis *Pub Health Rep*, 52 1249 1937
- 220 SUTRO C J Changes in the teeth and bone in chronic fluoride poisoning *Arch Path*, 19 159 1935
- 221 DEAN, H T MCKAY I S and ELVOE E Mottled enamel survey of Bauvite, Ark., 10 years after a change in the common water supply *Pub Health Rep*, 55 1736 1938
- 222 GETTING V A Fluorine and dental caries *N E J Med*, 234 791, 1946
- 223 KNUITSON J W and ARMSTRONG W D The effect of topically applied sodium fluoride on dental caries experience II Report of findings for second study year *Pub Health Rep*, 60 1085, 1945
- 224 DEAN, H T, JAY P, ARNOLD F A and ELVOE, E Domestic water and dental caries I A dental caries study including *L Acidophilus* estimations of a population severely affected by mottled enamel and which for the past 12 years has used a fluoride free water *Pub Health Rep* 56 365 1941
- 225 MARTIN G J Mixtures of pure amino acids as substitutes for dietary protein *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 55 182 1944
- 226 WOOLLEY D W Observation on the growth stimulating action of certain proteins added to protein free diets compounded with amino acids *J Biol Chem*, 159 753, 1945
- 227 WILLCOCK, E G and HOPKINS F G The importance of individual amino acids in metabolism. Observations on the effect of adding tryptophane to a dietary in which zein is the sole nitrogenous constituent *J Physiol* 55 88 1906
- 228 OSBORN T B and MENDEL, L B Amino acids in nutrition and growth *J Biol Chem*, 17 325 1914
- 229 ALBANESE A A HOLT, L E JR KAJDI C N, and FRANKSTON J F Observations on tryptophane deficiency in rats. Chemical and morphological changes in the blood *J Biol Chem*, 148 299 1943
- 230 ROSE W C and RICE, E E The significance of the amino acids in canine nutrition *Science* 90 186 1919

- 231 ALBANESE A A and BUSCHKE W On cataract and certain other manifestations of tryptophane deficiency in rats *Science* 95 184 1942
- 232 TOTTER J R and DAY P L Cataract and other ocular changes resulting from tryptophane deficiency *J Nutrition*, 24 159 1942
- 233 BUSCHKE W Classification of experimental cataracts in the rat Recent observations on cataract associated with tryptophane deficiency and with some other experimental conditions *Arch Ophth* 30 735 1943
- 234 CARTWRIGHT C G WINTROBE M M, BUSCHKE W H FOLLIS R H, JR, SUKSTA A and HUMPHREYS S Anemia hypoproteinemia and cataracts in swine fed casein hydrolysate or zein Comparison with pyridoxine deficiency anemia *J Clin Invest* 24 268 1945
- 235 WHIPPLE, G H and ROBSCHT-ROBBINS F S Amino acids and hemoglobin production in anemia *J Exper Med* 71 569 1940
- 236 MADDEN S C ANDERSON F W DONOVAN J C and WHIPPLE, G H Plasma protein production influenced by amino acid mixtures and lack of essential amino acids *J Exper Med*, 82 77 1945
- 237 ALBANESE A A RANDALL R M and HOLT L E The effect of tryptophane deficiency on reproduction *Science*, 97 312 1943
- 238 HOLT L E, ALBANESE, A A, FRANKSTON J E and IRBY, V The tryptophane requirement of man as determined by nitrogen balance and by excretion of tryptophane in urine *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp* 75 353 1944
- 239 WEISSMAN N and SCHOENHEIMER R The relative stability of l (+) -lysine in rats studied with deuterium and heavy nitrogen *J Biol Chem* 140 779 1941
- 240 HARRIS H A, NEUBERGER A., and SANGER F Lysine deficiency in young rats *Biochem J*, 37 508 1943
- 241 GILLESPIE M NEUBERGER A and WEBSTER T A Further studies on lysine deficiency in rats *Biochem J* 59 203 1945
- 242 HOCK C W HALL, W K PUND E R and SIDENSTRICKER V P Vascularization of the cornea as a result of lysine deficiency *Fed Proc*, 4 155 1945
- 243 ALBANESE A A HOLT L E JR FRANKSTON J E KAJDI, C N BRUNIBACH J E JR and WANGERIN D M A biochemical lesion of lysine deficiency in man *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 52 209, 1943
- 244 GELING E M K The nutritive value of the diamino acids occurring in proteins for the maintenance of adult mice *J Biol Chem*, 31 173, 1917
- 245 ROSE W C and COX G J The relation of arginine and histidine to growth *J Biol Chem*, 61 747 1924
- 246 REMMERT L F and BUTTS J S Studies in amino acid metabolism VIII The metabolism of l (-) -histidine in the normal rat *J Biol Chem*, 144 41, 1942
- 247 WERLE, E and HEITZER K Zur Kenntnis der Histidincarboxylase *Biochem Z*, 299 420 1938
- 248 DARBY, W J., and LEWIS H B Urocanic acid and the intermediary metabolism of histidine in the rabbit *J Biol Chem* 146 225 1942
- 249 ALBANESE, A A., and FRANKSTON J E The dietary role of histidine in the immature and adult rat *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 77 61 1945

- 212 GREENWALD I The early history of goiter in the Americas, in New Zealand and in England A contribution to the etiology of the disease *Bull Hist Med*, 17 229 1945
- 213 MARINI, D and LINHART, C H Colloid glands (goiters) their etiology and physiological significance *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 20 131, 1909
- 214 MCCLENDON, J I Fluorine is necessary in the diet of the rat *Fed Proc* 94, 1944
- 215 SHARPLESS, G R and MCCOLLUM E V Is fluorine an indispensable element in the diet *J Nutrition*, 6 163, 1933
- 216 EVANS, R J, and PHILLIPS, P H A new low fluorine diet and its effect upon the rat *J Nutrition*, 18 353, 1939
- 217 MCCLENDON, J I and FOSTER W C The necessity of fluorine in the diet II *Fed Proc*, 4 159, 1945
- 218 SMITH M C, LANTZ, E M and SMITH H V The cause of mottled enamel a defect of human teeth *Tech Bull* 32, *Univ Ariz Agr Exp Stat* 253 1931
- 219 DEAN H T and LLOYD, L Further studies on the minimal threshold of chronic endemic dental fluorosis *Pub Health Rep*, 52 1249 1937
- 220 SUTRO C J Changes in the teeth and bone in chronic fluoride poisoning *Arch Path*, 19 159 1935
- 221 DEAN H T, MCKAY, F S and LLOYD E Mottled enamel survey of Bauvite, Ark., 10 years after a change in the common water supply *Pub Health Rep*, 53 1736 1938
- 222 GETTING, V A Fluorine and dental caries *N E J Med*, 234 791 1946
- 223 KNUTSON, J W and ARMSTRONG W D The effect of topically applied sodium fluoride on dental caries experience II Report of findings for second study year *Pub Health Rep*, 60 1085, 1945
- 224 DEAN, H T, JAY, P, ARNOLD F A and LLOYD, E Domestic water and dental caries I A dental caries study, including *L Acidophilus* estimations of a population severely affected by mottled enamel and which for the past 12 years has used a fluoride-free water *Pub Health Rep*, 56 365 1941
- 225 MARTIN G J Mixtures of pure amino acids as substitutes for dietary protein *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 55 182, 1944
- 226 WOOLLEY D W Observation on the growth-stimulating action of certain proteins added to protein free diets compounded with amino acids *J Biol Chem*, 159 753 1945
- 227 WILLCOCK, E G and HOPKINS F G The importance of individual amino acids in metabolism Observations on the effect of adding tryptophane to a dietary in which zein is the sole nitrogenous constituent *J Physiol* 35 88 1906
- 228 OSBORNE T B and MENDL L B Amino acids in nutrition and growth *J Biol Chem*, 17 325, 1914
- 229 ALBANFSE A A, HOLT, L E JR, KAJDI C N and FRANKSTON J E Observations on tryptophane deficiency in rats Chemical and morphological changes in the blood *J Biol Chem*, 148 299 1943
- 230^r ROSE W C and RICE, E C The significance of the amino acids in canine nutrition *Science* 90 186 1939

- 269 BAUFER C D and BERG C P The amino acids required for growth in mice and the availability of their optical isomer *J Nutrition*, 26 51 1943
- 270 WOMACK M, KEMMIFER, K S and ROSE, W C The relation of methionine and cystine to growth *J Biol Chem*, 121 403 1937
- 271 SIMMONDS S COHN M CHANDLER J P, and DUVIGNEAUD V The utilization of the methyl groups of choline in the biological synthesis of methionine *J Biol Chem*, 149 519 1943
- 272 DUVIGNEAUD V COHN M, CHANDLER J P SCLENCK J R and SIMMONDS S The utilization of the methyl group of methionine in the biological synthesis of choline and creatine *J Biol Chem*, 140 26 1941
- 273 JERVIS G A Occurrence of brain hemorrhages in choline deficient rats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 51 193 1942
- 274 GLYNN L E HINSMORTH H P and NEUBERGER A Pathological states due to deficiency of the sulphur-containing amino acids *Brit J Exp Path*, 26 326 1945
- 275 WILSON R H and LEWIS H B The cystine content of hair and other epidermal tissues *J Biol Chem* 73 543 1927
- 276 SMILTS D B MITCHELL H H and HAMILTON T S The relation between dietary cystine and the growth and cystine content of hair in the rat *J Biol Chem*, 95 283 1932
- 277 HEARD E V and LEWIS H B The metabolism of sulfur XIV Dietary methionine as a factor related to the growth and composition of the hair of the young white rat *J Biol Chem* 125 203 1938
- 278 MARTIN, G J and GARDNER R E The trichogenic action of the sulphhydryl group in hereditary hypotrichosis of the rat *J Biol Chem* 111 193 1935
- 279 ROBERTS E The effect of cysteine on hereditary hypotrichosis in the rat (mus norvegicus) *J Biol Chem* 118 627 1937
- 280 BURROUGHS E W BURROUGHS H S and MITCHELL H H The amino acids required for complete replacement of endogenous losses in the adult rat *J Nutrition* 19 363 1940
- 281 ROBSCHKE-ROBBINS F S MILLER L L and WHIPPLE G H Hemoglobin and plasma protein Simultaneous production during continued bleeding as influenced by amino acids plasma hemoglobin and digests of serum hemoglobin, and casein *J Exper Med* 77 375 1943
- 282 GOODFELL J P B HANSON P C, and HAWKINS W B Methionine protects against mepharsen liver injury in protein depleted dogs *J Exper Med* 79 62 1944
- 283 MILLER L L, and WHIPPLE G H Liver injury liver protection and sulfur metabolism Methionine protects against chloroform injury even when given after anesthesia *J Exper Med*, 76 421 1942
- 284 SHAFFER C B CARPENTER C P, and MOSES C. An experimental evaluation of methionine in the therapy of liver injury from carbon tetrachloride *J Ind Hyg and Tox*, 28 87 1946
- 285 ALBANESE, A A, HOLT L E JR BRUNBACH J L JR FRANKSTON J E and IRBY V Observations on a diet deficient in both methionine and cystine in man *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp* 74 308 1944
- 286 ROSE, W C, and EPPSTEIN S H The dietary indispensability of valine *J Biol Chem* 127 667 1939

- 250 MAUN, M E, CAHILL W M, and DAVIS, R M Morphologic studies of rats deprived of essential amino acids III Histidine *Arch Path*, 41 25, 1946
- 251 ALBANESE, A A, HOLT, L E, JR, FRANKSTON, J E, and IRBY V Observations on a histidine deficient diet in man *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 74 251 1944
- 252 SCULL C W and ROSE, W C Arginine metabolism I The relation of the arginine content of the diet to the increments in tissue arginine during growth *J Biol Chem*, 89 109, 1930
- 253 BUTTS J S, and SINNHUBER, R O Studies in amino acid metabolism VII The metabolism of l (+) -arginine and dllysine in the normal rat *J Biol Chem*, 140 597, 1941
- 254 BLOCH K and SCHOENHEIMER R The biological precursors of creatine *J Biol Chem*, 138 167, 1941
- 255 HOLT, L E, JR ALPHEISE, A A, SHETTLER L B KAJDI, C and WANGERIN D M Studies of experimental amino acid deficiency in man I Nitrogen balance *Fed Proc*, 1 116 1942
- 256 MADDEN, S C, CARTER, J R KATTUS A A MILLER I L, and WHIPPLE G H Ten amino acids essential for plasma protein production effective orally or intravenously *J Exper Med*, 77 277, 1943
- 257 WOMACK, M and ROSE W C Feeding experiments with mixtures of highly purified amino acids VI The relation of phenylalanine and tyrosine to growth *J Biol Chem*, 107 449 1934
- 258 MOSS, A R and SCHOENHEIMER, R The conversion of phenylalanine to tyrosine in normal rats *J Biol Chem*, 135 415 1940
- 259 MAUN, M E CAHILL, W M and DAVIS R M Morphologic studies of rats deprived of essential amino acids I Phenylalanine *Arch Path*, 39 294 1945
- 260 ROSE, W C HAINES, W J JOHNSON J E and WARNER D T Further experiments on the role of the amino acids in human nutrition *J Biol Chem*, 148 457 1943
- 261 WOMACK, M, and ROSE, W C The relation of leucine isoleucine, and norleucine to growth *J Biol Chem* 116 581, 1936
- 262 BLOCH K Some aspects of the metabolism of leucine and valine *J Biol Chem*, 155 255 1944
- 263 MAUN, M E CAHILL W M and DAVIS R M Morphologic studies of rats deprived of essential amino acids II Leucine *Arch Path*, 40 173, 1945
- 264 HEGSTED D M McKIBBIN, J M, and SFARF, F J The nutritive value of human plasma for the rat *J Clin Invest* 23 705 1944
- 265 ALBANESE, A A Studies on human blood proteins I The isoleucine deficiency of hemoglobin *J Biol Chem*, 157 613 1945
- 266 MCCOY, R H MEYER, C E and ROSE W C Feeding experiments with mixtures of highly purified amino acids VIII Isolation and identification of a new essential amino acid *J Biol Chem*, 112 283, 1936
- 267 MEYER C E and ROSE W C The spatial configuration of α -amino- β -hydroxy-n butyric acid *J Biol Chem* 115 721 1936
- 268 HALL W K DOTY J R and EATON, A G The availability of dl-threonine and dl allothreonine for the formation of carbohydrate *Am J Physiol* 131 252 1940

- 307 OGCOTT, H S and McCANN D C Carotenase The transformation of carotene into vitamin A in vitro *J Biol Chem*, 94 185 1931
- 308 ALTSCHULE, M D Vitamin A deficiency in spite of adequate diet in congenital atresia of bile ducts and jaundice *Arch Path*, 20 845, 1935
- 309 DAVIES, A W., and MOORE, T Vitamin A and Carotene VI The distribution of vitamin A in the organs of the normal and hyper vitaminotic rat *Biochem J*, 28 288, 1934
- 310 POIFFER, HANS Distribution of vitamin A in tissues as visualized by fluorescence microscopy *Physiol Rev* 24 205 1944
- 311 WALD G The photoreceptor function of the carotenoids and vitamin A *Vitamins and Hormones* 1 195 1943
- 312 WOLBACH S B and HOWE, P R Tissue changes following deprivation of fat soluble A vitamin *J Exper Med*, 42 753 1925
- 313 WOLBACH S B and HOWE P R Vitamin A deficiency in the guinea-pig *Arch Path*, 5 239 1928
- 314 SMITH S E The minimum vitamin A requirement of the fox *J Nutrition* 24 97, 1942
- 315 WOLFE J M and SALTER H P, JR Vitamin A deficiency in the albino mouse *J Nutrition*, 4 185 1931
- 316 TILDEN C B and MILLER, E G The response of the monkey (Macacus Rhesus) to withdrawal of vitamin A from the diet *J Nutrition* 3 121 1930
- 317 WOLBACH S B and BESSEY O A Tissue changes in vitamin deficiencies *Physiol Rev* 22 233, 1942
- 318 FRIEDENWALD J S BUSCHKE W, and MORRIS M E Mitotic activity and wound healing in the corneal epithelium of vitamin A deficient rats *J Nutrition* 29 299 1945
- 319 WOLBACH S B and HOWE P R Epithelial repair in recovery from vitamin A deficiency *J Exper Med*, 57 511, 1933
- 320 MACLEAN A L Sjogren's syndrome *Bull John Hopkins Hosp*, 76 179 1945
- 321 HOLM E Demonstration of hemeralopia in rats nourished on food devoid of fat soluble-A-vitamin *Am J Physiol*, 73 79 1925
- 322 JOHNSON M L Degeneration and repair of the rat retina in avitaminosis A *Arch Ophth*, 29 793 1943
- 323 FRAZIER C N and HU C Cutaneous lesions associated with a deficiency in vitamin A in man *Arch Int Med* 48 507 1931
- 324 SULLIVAN M and EVANS V J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat VI Vitamin A deficiency superimposed on vitamin B complex deficiency *Arch Dermat and Syph*, 51 17, 1945
- 325 MASON K E Foetal death prolonged gestation and difficult parturition in the rat as a result of vitamin A deficiency *Am J Anat* 57 303, 1935
- 326 MASON K E Changes in the vaginal epithelium of the rat after vitamin A deficiency *J Nutrition*, 9 735 1935
- 327 MELLANBY SIR E Nutrition in relation to bone growth and the nervous system *Proc Royal Soc*, 132 28 1944
- 328 WOLBACH S B., and BESSEY, O A Vitamin deficiency and the nervous system *Arch Path* 32 689 1941

- 287 ROSE W C, JOHNSON J E, and HAINES W J The metabolism of valine in phlorhizin glycosuria *J Biol Chem*, 145 679, 1942
- 288 ROSE, W C, HAINES, W J, and JOHNSON, J E The role of the amino acids in human nutrition *J Biol Chem*, 146 683, 1942
- 289 SMITH, D T, PERSONS, E L, and HARVEY, H I On the identity of the Goldberger and Underhill types of canine blacktongue Secondary fusospirochetal infection in each *J Nutrition*, 14 373, 1937
- 290 SMITH, D T, and RUFFIN, J M Effect of sunlight on the clinical manifestations of pellagra *Arch Int Med*, 59 631, 1937
- 291 RUFFIN, J M, and SMITH, D T Treatment of pellagra with special reference to nicotinic acid *South Med J*, 32 40 1939
- 292 SMITH, S G, and MARTIN, D W Cheilosis successfully treated with synthetic vitamin B₆ *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 43 660, 1940
- 293 WEICHELBAUM, E Cystine deficiency in the albino rat *Quart J Exper Phys*, 25 363 1935
- 294 DART F S, SEBRFLL, W H, and LILLIE R D Prevention by cystine or methionine of hemorrhage and necrosis of the liver in rats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 50 1, 1942
- 295 HIBBS R E Beriberi in Japanese prison camp *Ann Int Med*, 25 270 1946
- 296 MCCALL K B, WAISMAN H A, ELVEHJEM, C A and JONES E S A study of pyridoxine and pantothenic acid deficiency in the monkey (macaca mulatta) *J Nutrition*, 31 685, 1946
- 297 BEAN W B, SPIES T D, and VILTER R W Asymmetric cutaneous lesions in pellagra *Arch Dermat and Syph*, 49 335, 1944
- 298 SULLIVAN, M, and NICHOLLS, J The nutritional approach to experimental dermatology Nutritional dermatoses in the rat II Skin changes in rats deficient in the entire vitamin B complex other than thiamine *J Invest Dermat*, 5 337 1940
- 299 SULLIVAN M and NICHOLLS J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat III Gangrene and spontaneous amputation of the digits produced by the continued deficiency of vitamin B₆ and the filtrate components *J Invest Dermat*, 4 123, 1941
- 300 MCCOLLUM E V and DAVIS M The necessity of certain lipins in the diet during growth *J Biol Chem*, 15 167, 1913
- 301 OSBORNE T B, and MENDEL, L B The relation of growth to the chemical constituents of the diet *J Biol Chem*, 15 311 1913
- 302 STEFANBOCK, H White corn vs yellow corn as a probable relation between the fat soluble vitamin and yellow plant pigments *Science*, 50 352 1919
- 303 MOORE, T Vitamin A and carotene VI The conversion of carotene to vitamin A in vivo *Biochem J*, 24 692 1930
- 304 KARRER, P, HELFENSTEIN A, WEHRLI H, and WEITSTEFIN A Pflanzenfarbstoffe XXV Ueber die Konstitution des Lycopens und Carotins *Helv chim Acta*, 13 1084 1930
- 305 KARRER, P, MORF R, and SCHÖPP K Zur Kenntnis des Vitamins A aus Fischtranen II *Helv chim Acta*, 14 1431 1931
- 306 FUSON, R C and CHRIST R E The condensation of β cyclocitrol with dimethylacrolein *Science*, 84 294 1936

- 349 McCOLLUM, L. V., SIMMONDS, N., PARSONS, H. T., SHIPLEY, P. G., and PARK, E. A. Studies on experimental rickets. I. The production of rickets and similar diseases in the rat by deficient diets. *J Biol Chem*, 45 333 1921
- 350 SHIPLEY, P. G., PARK, E. A., McCOLLUM, L. V. and SIMMONDS, N. Experimental rickets. III. A pathological condition bearing fundamental resemblances to rickets of the human being resulting from diets low in phosphorus and fat soluble A. the phosphate ion in its prevention. *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 32 160 1921
- 351 SHIPLEY, P. G., PARK, E. A., McCOLLUM, L. V., SIMMONDS, N. and PARSONS, H. T. Studies on experimental rickets. II. The effect of cod liver oil administered to rats with experimental rickets. *J Biol Chem* 45 343 1921
- 352 McCOLLUM, L. V., SIMMONDS, N., BECKER, J. E. and SHIPLEY, P. G. Studies on experimental rickets. XVI. An experimental demonstration of the existence of a vitamin which promotes calcium deposition. *J Biol Chem* 55 293 1922
- 353 PARK, E. A. and HOWLAND, J. The radiographic evidence of the influence of cod liver oil in rickets. *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 32 341 1921
- 354 HULDSCHINSKY, K. Heilung von Rachitis durch kunstliche Hohen Sonne. *Deut med Wochenschr*, 45 712 1919
- 355 STEENBOCK, H. and BLACK, A. Fat soluble vitamins. XVII. The induction of growth promoting and calcifying properties in a ration by exposure to ultra-violet light. *J Biol Chem*, 61 405 1924
- 356 HESS, A. F. and WEINSTOCK, M. Antirachitic properties imparted to inert fluids and to green vegetables by ultra-violet irradiation. *J Biol Chem*, 62 301 1924
- 357 BILLS, C. E. The chemistry of vitamin D. *JAMA* 110 2150 1938
- 358 HESS, A. F. and WEINSTOCK, M. The antirachitic value of irradiated cholesterol and phytosterol. II. Further evidence of change in biological activity. *J Biol Chem*, 64 181 1925
- 359 NICOLAYSEN, R. Studies on the mode of action of vitamin D. III. The influence of vitamin D on the absorption of calcium and phosphorus in the rat. *Biochem J* 31 122 1937
- 360 NICOLAYSEN, R. V. The absorption of phosphate from isolated loops of small intestine in the rat. *Biochem J*, 31 1086 1937
- 361 GREENBERG, D. M. Studies in mineral metabolism with the aid of artificial radioactive isotopes. VIII. Tracer experiments with radioactive calcium and strontium on the mechanism of vitamin D action in rachitic rats. *J Biol Chem*, 157 99 1945
- 362 COHN, W. E. and GREENBERG, D. M. Studies in mineral metabolism with the aid of artificial radioactive isotopes. III. The influence of vitamin D on the phosphorus metabolism of rachitic rats. *J Biol Chem*, 130 625 1939
- 363 SHIMOTORI, N. and MORGAN, A. F. Mechanism of vitamin D action in dogs shown by radioactive phosphorus. *J Biol Chem*, 147 201 1943
- 364 McLEAN, F. C. and BLOOM, W. Calcification and ossification. Calcification in normal growing bone. *Anat Rec* 78 333 1940

- 329 WOLBACH, S B Pathology in relation to nutritional research *Nutrition Rev*, 3 193, 1945
- 330 MOORE L A HUEFMAN C F and DUNCAN, C W Blindness in cattle associated with a constriction of the optic nerve and probably of nutritional origin *J Nutrition*, 9 533, 1935
- 331 MOORE L A, and SYKES, J F Cerebrospinal fluid pressure and vitamin A deficiency *Am J Physiol*, 130 684 1940
- 332 MOORE, L A BERRY, M H and SYKES, J F Carotene requirements for the maintenance of a normal spinal fluid pressure in dairy calves *J Nutrition*, 26 649 1943
- 333 MASDEN, L L, HALL, S R and CONVERSE H T Cystic pituitary in young cattle with vitamin A deficiency *J Nutrition*, 24 15 1942
- 334 WOLBACH, S B, and HOWE, P R The incisor teeth of albino rats and guinea pigs in vitamin deficiency and repair *Am J Path* 9 275, 1933
- 335 BURN C G, ORTEN, A U, and SMITH A H Changes in structure of developing tooth in rats maintained on diets deficient in vitamin A *Jale J Biol and Med*, 13 817 1941
- 336 SCHOUR I HOFFMAN M M, and SMITH M C Changes in the incisor teeth of albino rats with vitamin A deficiency and the effects of replacement therapy *Am J Path*, 17 529 1941
- 337 WARKANY J and SCHRAFFENBERGER E Congenital malformations of the eyes induced in rats by maternal vitamin A deficiency *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 57 49 1944
- 338 HSU HUI-CHUAN Serum carotinoids and vitamin A in Chinese *Chin Med J*, 61 238 1943
- 339 CAVINESS H L SATTERFIELD G H and DANN W J Correlation of the results of the biophotometer test with the vitamin A content of human blood *Arch Ophth*, 25 827 1941
- 340 BRENNER S and ROBERTS L J Effects of vitamin A depletion in young adults *Am J Dis Child*, 71 474 1943
- 341 BLACKFAN K D and WOLBACH S B Vitamin A deficiency in infants Clinical and pathological study *J Pediat*, 3 679 1933
- 342 BOYLE P E Manifestations of vitamin A deficiency in a human tooth germ *J Dent Res*, 12 39 1933
- 343 JEWETT, H J SLOAN L L, and STRONG G H Does vitamin A deficiency exist in clinical urolithiasis? A clinical and pathologic study of ninety-eight cases *JAMA*, 121 566 1943
- 344 REID M E Interrelations of calcium and ascorbic acid to cell surfaces and intercellular substances and to physiological action *Physiol Rev* 23 76 1943
- 345 POMMER G *Untersuchungen uber Osteomalacie und Rachitis* Leipzig FCW Vogel 1885
- 346 MELLANBY E The part played by an accessory factor in the production of experimental rickets *J Physiol*, 52 XI, 1918
- 347 MELLANBY E Experimental rickets London 1921 (*Med Res Council, Spec Rep Serv No 61*)
- 348 SHERMAN, H C, and PAPPENHEIMER A M A dietetic production of rickets in rats and its prevention by an inorganic salt *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 18 193 1921

- 385 FOLLIS R H, JR, JACKSON D, and PARK L A The problem of the association of rickets and scurvy *Am J Dis Child*, 60 745 1940
- 386 FOLLIS R H, JR, JACKSON, D, ELIOT, M M, and PARK E A Prevalence of rickets in children between two and fourteen years of age *Am J Dis Child*, 66 1, 1943
- 387 MAXWELL, J P., and MILES L M Osteomalacia in China *J Obst and Gynec Brit Emp*, 32 433 1925
- 388 FOLLIS R H JR and JACKSON, D Renal osteomalacia and osteitis fibrosa in adults *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 72 232 1943
- 389 WARKANY J and MABON H L Estimation of vitamin D in blood serum II Level of vitamin D in human blood serums *Am J Dis Child*, 60 606 1940
- 390 EVANS H M., and BISHOFF K S On the existence of a hitherto unrecognized dietary factor essential for reproduction *Science*, 56 650 1922
- 391 MATTILL, H H, CARMAN J S, and CLAYTON M M The nutritive properties of milk III The effectiveness of the substance in preventing sterility in rats on milk rations high in fat *J Biol Chem*, 61 729, 1924
- 392 EVANS H M and BURR G O Development of paralysis in suckling young of mothers deprived of vitamin E. *J Biol Chem*, 76 275 1928
- 393 OLCOTT H S The paralysis in the young of vitamin E deficient female rats *J Nutrition*, 15 221, 1938
- 394 EVANS H M., EMERSON O H and EMERSON G A The isolation from wheat germ oil of an alcohol tocopherol having the properties of vitamin E *J Biol Chem*, 113 319 1936
- 395 KARRER P, FRITZSCHE H, RINCFER, B H and SALOMON H α -Tocopherol *Helv Chim Acta*, 21 520 1938
- 396 BARNES R H, LUNDBERG W O., HANSON H T., and BURR G O The effect of certain dietary ingredients on the keeping quality of body fat *J Biol Chem* 149 313 1943
- 397 HOLCHIN O B The in vitro effect of α -tocopherol and its phosphate derivative on oxidation in muscle tissues *J Biol Chem* 146 313 1942
- 398 HICKMAN K C D, KALEY M W., and HARRIS P L Covitamin studies I The sparing action of natural tocopherol concentrations on vitamin A *J Biol Chem* 152 303 1944
- 399 MATTILL, H A and GOLUMBIC, C Vitamin E, cod liver oil and muscular dystrophy *J Nutrition* 23 625 1942
- 400 BRINKHOUTS K M and WARNER E D Muscular dystrophy in biliary fistula dogs possible relationship to vitamin E deficiency *Am J Path* 17 81 1941
- 401 MASON K E Distribution of vitamin E in the tissues of the rat *J Nutrition* 23 17 1942
- 402 EVANS H M., BURR G O and ALTHAUSEN T The antisterility vitamin fat soluble E *Memoirs of the University of California*, Vol 8 1927
- 403 URNER J A The intra uterine changes in the pregnant albino rat (*Mus norvegicus*) deprived of vitamin E. *Anat Rec* 50 175 1931
- 404 BRISON W L and MASON K E Vitamin E deficiency in the mouse *Am J Physiol* 151 265 1940
- 405 PAPPEHEIMER A M and GOETTSCHE M Death of embryos in guinea pigs on diets low in vitamin E *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 47 268 1941

- 365 LISENBIGLER, S, LEHRMAN, A and TURNER, W D The basic calcium phosphates and related systems Some theoretical and practical aspects *Chem Rev*, 26 257 1940
- 366 HOWLAND J, and KRAMER, B Factors concerned in the calcification of bone *Trans Am Pediat Soc*, 34 204, 1922
- 367 SHIPLEY P G The healing of rickets bones in vitro *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 35 304, 1924
- 368 SHIPLEY, P G, KRAMER, B and HOWLAND J Studies upon calcification in vitro *Biochem J*, 20 379, 1926
- 369 GUTMAN A B, and GUTMAN, E B A phosphorylase in calcifying cartilage *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 48 687, 1941
- 370 GUTMAN, A B WARRICK F B and GUTMAN, E B Phosphorylative glycogenolysis and calcification in cartilage *Science*, 95 461 1942
- 371 GLOCK, G E Glycogen and calcification *J Physiol*, 98 1, 1940
- 372 ROBISON R and ROSENTHAL A A Calcification of hypertrophic cartilage in vitro *Biochem J*, 28 684 1934
- 373 ROUS, P The reaction within living mammalian tissues I General features of vital staining with litmus *J Exper Med*, 41 379, 1925
- 374 PIERCE, J A The reaction of the epiphyseal cartilage in normal and rachitic rats *J Biol Chem* 124 115 1938
- 375 GOLDBLATT H Die neuere Richtung der experimentellen Rachitisforschung *Ergb d All Path*, 25 58 1931
- 376 DODDS G S and CAMERON, H C Studies on experimental rickets in rats I Structural modifications of the epiphyseal cartilages in the tibia and other bones *Am J Anat*, 55 135, 1934
- 377 SHOHL A F with a note by S B WOLBACH Rickets in rats XV The effect of low calcium high phosphorus diets at various levels and ratios upon the production of rickets and tetany *J Nutrition*, 11 275 1936
- 378 ELIOT M M, and PARK, E A Rickets *Brennermann's Practice of Pediatrics*, Vol I Chapter XXXVI
- 379 PARK, E A Observations on the pathology of rickets with particular reference to the changes at the cartilage shaft junctions of the growing bones *Harvey Lectures 1938 1939* Baltimore Williams and Wilkins Co 1939 p 157
- 380 WEINMANN J P and SCHOUR I Experimental studies in calcification I The effect of a rachitogenic diet on the dental tissues of the white rat *Am J Path*, 21 821 1945
- 381 WEINMANN, J P and SCHOUR I II The effect of a rachitogenic diet on the alveolar bone of the white rat *Am J Path*, 21 833 1945
- 382 HOWE P R, WESSON L G, BOYIE P E and WOLBACH S B Low calcium rickets in the guinea pig *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 45 298 1940
- 383 REED C I, and REED B P An attempted correlation of mechanical properties of bone with antirachitic healing and with molecular structures as determined by x-ray defraction technique *Am J Physiol*, 138 34 1942
- 384 SCHMORL, G Die pathologisch Anatomie der rachitischen Kochenerkrankung mit besonderer Berücksichtigung ihrer Histologie und Pathologie *Ergb d inn Med u Kinderh* 4 403 1909

- 427 HEINRICH, M R, and MATTILL, H H Lipids of muscle and brain in rats deprived of tocopherol *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 52 344, 1943
- 428 MASON K E and EMMEL, A F Pigment of the sex glands in vitamin E deficient rats *Yale J Biol and Med*, 17 189, 1944
- 429 STEIN G and BOYLE, P E Studies on enamel I The yellow color of the incisor teeth of the albino rat *J Dent Res*, 20 261, 1941
- 430 MASON K E DAM H., and GRANADOS H Histological changes in adipose tissue of rats fed a vitamin E deficient diet high in cod liver oil *Anat Rec* 94 265 1946
- 431 DAM H., and GRANADOS, H Role of unsaturated fatty acids in changes of adipose and dental tissues in vitamin E deficiency *Science*, 102 327, 1945
- 432 GRANADOS H and DAM, H Inhibition of pigment deposition in incisor teeth of rats deficient in vitamin E from birth *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 59 295 1945
- 433 WOLF A and PAPPENHEIMER, A M Central nervous system in vitamin E deficient rats *Arch Neurol and Psychiat*, 48 538 1942
- 434 DAM H Cholesterinstoffwechsel in Huhnereiern und Huhnchen *Biochem Ztsch* 215 475 1929
- 435 DAM H and SCHÖNHEYDER, F A deficiency disease in chicks resembling scurvy *Biochem J*, 28 1355 1934
- 436 DAM H The antihemorrhagic vitamin of the chick *Biochem J* 29 1273 1935
- 437 ANSBACHER S and FERNHOLZ E Simple compounds with vitamin K activity *J Am Chem Soc*, 61 1924 1939
- 438 SMITH H P WARNER E D., BRINKHOUS K M., and SEEGER W H Bleeding tendency and prothrombin deficiency in biliary fistula dogs *J Exper Med* 67 911 1938
- 439 ANDRUS W DE W., LORD J W and MOORE, R A The effect of hepatectomy on the plasma prothrombin and the utilization of vitamin K *Surgery* 6 899 1939
- 440 QUICK A J On the constitution of prothrombin *Am J Physiol* 140 212 1943
- 441 LINK K P The anticoagulant 3 3-methylenbis (4-hydroxy coumarin) *Fed Proc*, 3 176 1945
- 442 OVERMAN R S FIELD J B., BAUMANN C A and LINK K P Studies on the hemorrhagic sweet clover disease IV The effect of diet and vitamin K on the hypoprothrombinemia induced by 3 3-methylenbis (4-hydroxy coumarin) in the rat *J Nutrition*, 23 589 1942
- 443 KORNBERG A DAFT F S., and SEBRELL, W H Production of vitamin K deficiency in rats by various sulfonamides *Pub Health Rep* 59 832 1944
- 444 MOORE R A., BITTINGER I., MILLER, M L and HELLMAN L M Abortion in rabbits fed a vitamin K deficient diet *Am J Obst and Gynec* 43 1007 1942
- 445 DAM H Vitamin K its discovery biochemistry and application to medicine *J Mt Sinai Hosp*, 12 961 1946
- 446 HELLMAN L M SHETTLES L B and EASTMAN N J Vitamin K in obstetrics review of one years experience *Am J Obst and Gynec* 40 884 1940

- 406 MASON, K. E. Changing concepts of the antisterility vitamin (vitamin E) *Yale J Biol and Med*, 14 605, 1942
- 407 MASON, K. E. Testicular degeneration in albino rats fed a purified food ration *J Exp Zool*, 45 159 1926
- 408 MASON, K. E. Differences in testes injury and repair after vitamin A deficiency vitamin E deficiency and irradiation *Am J Anat*, 52 153, 1933
- 409 PAPPENHEIMER, A. M., and SCHOCOFER, C. The testis in vitamin E deficient guinea pigs *Am J Path*, 20 239 1944
- 410 MACKENZIE, C. G. Cure of repeated attacks of nutritional muscular dystrophy in the rabbit by alpha tocopherol *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 49 313 1942
- 411 GOETTSCH, M. and PAPPENHEIMER, A. M. Nutritional muscular dystrophy in the guinea pig and rabbit *J Exper Med*, 54 145 1931
- 412 MACKENZIE, C. G. and MCCOLLUM, L. V. The cure of nutritional muscular dystrophy in the rabbit by alpha tocopherol and its effect on creatine metabolism *J Nutrition*, 19 345, 1940
- 413 PAPPENHEIMER, A. M. The pathology of nutritional muscular dystrophy in young rats *Am J Path* 15 179 1939
- 414 PAPPENHEIMER, A. M. Muscular dystrophy in mice on vitamin E deficient diet *Am J Path*, 18 169 1942
- 415 KAUNITZ, H. and PAPPENHEIMER, A. M. Oxygen consumption in vitamin E deficiency *Am J Physiol*, 138 328 1943
- 416 FENN, W. O. and GOETTSCH, M. Electrolytes in nutritional muscular dystrophy in rabbits *J Biol Chem* 120 41 1937
- 417 TILFORD, I. R. Loss of nerve endings in degenerated skeletal muscles of young vitamin E deficient rats *Anat Rec*, 81 171, 1941
- 418 LUG, D. EMERSON, G. A. and EVANS, H. M. Phosphorus metabolism of the musculature of E-deficient suckling rats *Am J Physiol* 135 367 1941
- 419 MORCULIS, S. WILDER, V. M. SIENGER, H. C. and EISENBERG, S. H. Studies on the lipid content of normal and dystrophic rabbits *J Biol Chem* 124 755 1938
- 420 GOETTSCH, M. and BROWN, E. F. Muscle creatine in nutritional muscular dystrophy of the rabbit *J Biol Chem* 97 549 1932
- 421 VICTOR, J. Metabolic and irritability changes in nutritional myopathy of rabbits and ducks *Am J Physiol*, 108 229 1934
- 422 HOUGHIN, O. B. and MATTILL, H. A. The oxygen consumption creatine and chloride content of muscles from vitamin E deficient animals as influenced by feeding α tocopherol *J Biol Chem* 146 301 1942
- 423 HOUGHIN, O. B. and MATTILL, H. A. The influence of parenteral administration of α tocopherol phosphate on the metabolic processes in dystrophic muscle *J Biol Chem*, 146 309 1942
- 424 PAPPENHEIMER, A. M. and GOETTSCH, M. Effect of nerve section upon development of nutritional muscular dystrophy in young rats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 43 313 1940
- 425 MASON, K. E. and EMMERL, A. F. Vitamin E and muscle pigment in the rat *Anat Rec*, 92 33 1945
- 426 HOUGHIN, O. B. and SMITH, P. W. Cardiac insufficiency in the vitamin E deficient rabbit *Am J Physiol* 141 242 1944

- 468 BARLOW, T On cases described as 'acute rickets' which are probably a combination of scurvy and rickets the scurvy being an essential and the rickets a variable element *Med Chir Trans*, 66 159 1883
- 469 HÖJER, J A Studies in scurvy *Acta pediat suppl*, 3 8, 1924
- 470 HAN, A W and ELLIOTT, H C The bone and cartilage lesions of protracted moderate scurvy *Am J Path*, 14 323, 1938
- 471 PARK, E A, GUILD H G JACKSON D and BOND, M The recognition of scurvy with especial reference to the early x-ray changes *Arch Dis Childhood*, 10 265 1935
- 472 FOLLIS R H JR Effect of mechanical force on the skeletal lesions in acute scurvy in guinea pigs *Arch Path* 35 579 1943
- 473 BOYLE, P E The tooth germ in acute scurvy *J Dent Res*, 14 172, 1934
- 474 BOYLE, P E, WOLBACH S B, and BESSEY O A Histopathology of teeth of guinea pigs in acute and chronic vitamin C deficiency *J Dent Res* 15 331, 1936
- 475 BOYLE P E, BESSEY O A, and WOLBACH S B Experimental production of the diffuse alveolar bone atrophy type of periodontal disease by diets deficient in ascorbic acid (vitamin C) *J Am Dent A*, 24 1768 1937
- 476 BOYLE, P E, BESSEY O A and HOWE P R Rate of dentine formation in incisor teeth of guinea pigs on normal and on ascorbic acid-deficient diets *Arch Path*, 30 90 1940
- 477 BOYLE, P E The effect of ascorbic acid deficiency on enamel formation in the teeth of guinea pigs *Am J Path*, 14 843 1938
- 478 MCBROOM, J SUNDERLAND D A MOTE, J R and JONES T D Effect of acute scurvy on the guinea pig heart *Arch Path*, 23 20, 1937
- 479 FOLLIS R H JR Sudden death in infants with scurvy *J Pediat*, 20 347, 1942
- 480 RUSSELL W O and CALLAWAY C P Pathologic changes in the liver and kidneys of guinea pigs deficient in vitamin C *Arch Path*, 35 546 1943
- 481 FARMER, C J Some aspects of vitamin C metabolism *Fed Proc*, 3 179 1944
- 482 KAJDI L LIGHT J and KAJDI C A test for the determination of the vitamin C storage *Vitamin C index J Pediat*, 15 197 1939
- 483 SHAW, J H PHILLIPS P H and ELVEHJEM C A Acute and chronic ascorbic acid deficiencies in the Rhesus monkey *J Nutrition*, 29 365 1945
- 484 ASCHOFF L and KOCH, W *Skorbut, Eine pathologisch-anatomische Studie*, Jena Gustav Fischer 1919
- 485 EIJMAN C Eine beriberi-ähnliche Krankheit der Hühner *Virch Arch*, 148 523 1897
- 486 IUNK C On the chemical nature of the substance which cures polyneuritis in birds induced by a diet of polished rice *J Physiol*, 43 395 1911
- 487 CLINE, J K WILLIAMS R R and FINKELSTEIN, J Studies of crystalline vitamin B₁ XVII Synthesis of Vitamin B₁ *J Am Chem Soc*, 59 1052 1937
- 488 LOHMANN K and SCHUSTER, P Untersuchungen über die Cocarboxylase *Biochem Zeit*, 294 188 1937
- 489 OCHOA, S., and PETERS R A Vitamin B₁ and cocarboxylase in animal tissues *Biochem J*, 32 1501 1938

- 447 POTTER, L. L. The effect on infant mortality of vitamin K administered during labor *Am J Obst and Gynec*, 50 235, 1945
- 448 KING, C. G., and WAUGH, W. A. Chemical nature of vitamin C *Science*, 75 357, 1932
- 449 REICHSTEIN, T., GRUSSNER, A. and OFFENHEIMER, R. Synthesis of d and l-ascorbic acid (vitamin C) *Helv Chim Acta*, 16 1019, 1933
- 450 HIRST, L. I. The structure of ascorbic acid *J Soc Chem Ind*, 52 221, 1933
- 451 BESSLY, O. A., and KING, C. G. The distribution of vitamin C in plant and animal tissues and its determination *J Biol Chem*, 105 687, 1933
- 452 BOURNE, G. The role of vitamin C in the organism as suggested by its cytology *Physiol Rev*, 16, 442, 1936
- 453 WOOLLEY, D. W., and KRAMHOLTZ, L. O. Production of a scurvy-like condition by feeding of a compound structurally related to ascorbic acid *J Exper Med*, 78 333, 1943
- 454 SPALOCK, R. R. The relation of vitamin C to the metabolism of the aromatic amino acids *Ied Proc*, 1 287, 1942
- 455 LAYNE, S. Z., GORDON, H. H., and MARPLES, E. A defect in the metabolism of tyrosine and phenylalanine in premature infants II Spontaneous occurrence and eradication by vitamin C *J Clin Invest*, 20 209 1941
- 456 LAY, T. H. and SPALOCK, R. R. The metabolism in vitro of tyrosine by liver and kidney tissues of normal and vitamin C deficient guinea pigs *J Biol Chem*, 155 483 1944
- 457 HARRER, C. J. and KING, C. G. Ascorbic acid deficiency and enzyme activity in guinea pig tissues *J Biol Chem*, 138 111, 1941
- 458 SULLIVAN, W. R., GANGSTAD, E. O., and LINK, K. P. Note on plasma fibrinogen in guinea pig scurvy *J Biol Chem*, 152 367 1944
- 459 SHWACHMAN, H. and GOULD, B. S. Serum phosphatase in experimental scurvy *J Nutrition*, 23 271, 1942
- 460 FRIEDENWALD, J. S., BUSCH, W., and MICHEL, H. O. Role of ascorbic acid (vitamin C) in secretion of intraocular fluid *Arch Ophth*, 29 535, 1943
- 461 SAYERS, G., SAYERS, M. A., LIANG, T. and LONG, C. N. H. The effect of pituitary adrenotrophic hormone on the cholesterol and ascorbic acid content of the adrenal of the rat and guinea pig *Endocrinology*, 38 1 1946
- 462 WOLBACH, S. B. and HOWE, P. R. Intercellular substances in experimental scorbutus *Arch Path* 1 1 1926
- 463 WOLBACH, S. B. Controlled formation of collagen and reticulum. A study of the source of intercellular substance in recovery from experimental scorbutus *Am J Path Suppl*, 9 689 1933
- 464 HUNT, A. H. The role of vitamin C in wound healing *Brit J Surg*, 28 436 1941
- 465 CRANDON, J. H., LUND, C. C. and DILL, D. B. Experimental human scurvy *New Eng J Med* 223 333 1940
- 466 BARTHELE, M. K., JONES, C. M. and RYAN, A. F. Vitamin C and wound healing I Experimental wounds in guinea pigs *New Eng J Med* 226 469 1942
- 467 MEYER, T. and MEYER, M. B. The pathology of staphylococcus abscesses in vitamin C deficient guinea pigs *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 74 98 1944

- 508 HAYNES, I. W., and WEISS S. Response of the normal heart and the heart in experimental vitamin B₁ deficiency to metabolites (pyruvic acid lactic acid, methyl glyoxal, glyceraldehyde and adenylic acid) and to thiamine. *Am Heart J*, 20 34, 1940
- 509 MEIKLEJOHN, A. P. Is thiamine the antineuritic vitamin. *New Eng J Med* 223 265 1940
- 510 SIES, T. D., and BURR H. R. *Diseases of Metabolism*, ed by G. G. Duncan W. B. Saunders Co. Phila., 1942 p. 424
- 511 IJIKMAN, C. Über Ernährungspolyneuritis. *Arch f Hyg*, 58 150 1906
- 512 SHWACHMAN, H. Serum phosphatase in infantile scurvy. *J Pediat* 19 38, 1941
- 513 VEDDER, F. B., and CLARK, L. A study of polyneuritis gallinarum. A fifth contribution to the etiology of beriberi. *Philippine J Sc* 7B 423 1912
- 514 MCCOLLUM, I. V. and DAVIS M. The nature of the dietary deficiencies of rice. *J Biol Chem*, 23 181 1915
- 515 MCCOLLUM, I. V. and SIMMONDS N. A study of the dietary essential water-soluble B in relation to its solubility and stability towards reagents. *J Biol Chem* 22 55 1918
- 516 SMITH, M. I. A new method of evaluating the potency of antineuritic concentrates. *Pub Health Rep* 45 116 1930
- 517 PRICKETT, C. O. The effect of a deficiency of vitamin B₁ upon the central and peripheral nervous systems of the rat. *Am J Physiol* 107 459 1934
- 518 DAVISON, C. and STONE L. Lesions of the nervous system of the rat in vitamin B deficiency. *Arch Path* 23 207 1937
- 519 FACHE, R. W., and PHILLIPS P. H. Lack of nerve degeneration in uncomplicated vitamin B₁ deficiency in chick and rat. *J Nutrition*, 16 585 1938
- 520 PRICKETT C. O. SIMMONS W. D. and SCHRAEDER G. A. Histopathology of the peripheral nerves in acute and chronic vitamin B₁ deficiency in the rat. *Am J Path*, 15 251 1939
- 521 BERRY C. NEUMANN C. and HINSEY J. C. Nerve regeneration in cats on vitamin B₁ deficient diets. *J Neurophysiol* 8 315 1945
- 522 WINTROBE M. M. LOUIS R. H. JR. HUMPHREYS S. STEIN H. and LAURITSSEN M. Absence of nerve degeneration in chronic thiamine deficiency in pigs. *J Nutrition* 28 283 1944
- 523 SWANK R. I. Avian thiamine deficiency. A correlation of the pathology and clinical behavior. *J Exper Med* 71 683 1940
- 524 SWANK R. I. and BISSEY, O. A. Avian thiamine deficiency. Characteristic symptoms and their pathogenesis. *J Nutrition* 22 77 1941
- 525 SHAW J. H. and PHILLIPS P. H. Neuropathologic studies of acute and chronic thiamine deficiencies and of inanition. *J Nutrition*, 29 113 1945
- 526 HESTED D. M. BRICES G. M. LIVENHJEM C. A. and HART F. B. The role of arginine and glycine in chick nutrition. *J Biol Chem* 140 191 1941
- 527 BRICES G. M. JR. LUCKEY T. D., LIVENHJEM C. A. and HART, F. B. The effectiveness of a mixture of arginine glycine and cystine in the prevention of the so called vitamin B₁ deficiency in the chick. *J Biol Chem* 150 11 1943
- 528 CHURCH C. F. Functional studies of the nervous system in experimental beriberi. *Am J Physiol* 111 660 1935

- 490 OCHOA, S Enzymic synthesis of cocarboxylase in animal tissues *Biochem J*, 53 1262, 1939
- 491 PETERS R A The biochemical lesion in vitamin B₁ deficiency Application of modern biochemical analysis in its diagnosis *Lancet*, 1 1161, 1936
- 492 BARRON, E S G., and LYMAN, C M Studies on biological oxidations XI The metabolism of pyruvic acid by animal tissues and bacteria *J Biol Chem*, 127 143, 1939
- 493 BARRON, E S G., LYMAN, C M, LIPTON, M A, and GOLDINGER, J M Studies on biological oxidations XVI The effect of thiamine on condensation reactions of pyruvate *J Biol Chem*, 141 957, 1941
- 494 ASHBURN, L L, and LOWRY, J V Development of cardiac lesions in thiamine-deficient rats *Arch Path*, 37 27, 1944
- 495 EVERETT G M Observations on the behavior and neurophysiology of acute thiamine deficient cats *Am J Physiol*, 141 439 1944
- 496 SWANK, R L, PORTER, R R, and YEOMANS, A The production and study of cardiac failure in thiamine deficient dogs *Am Heart J*, 22 154, 1941
- 497 EVANS C A, CARLSON W E, and GREEN, R G The pathology of Chastek paralysis in foveas A counterpart of Wernicke's hemorrhagic polyencephalitis of man *Am J Path*, 18 79 1942
- 498 WINTROBE, M M, STEIN, H J, MILLER, M H., FOLLIS, R H JR, NAJJAR, V, and HUMPHREYS S A study of thiamine deficiency in swine together with a comparison of methods of assay *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 71 141 1942
- 499 WAISMAN, H A, and MCCALL, K B A study of thiamine deficiency in the monkey (macaca mulatta) *Arch Biochem*, 4 265 1944
- 500 MULLS, J, WEISS S., and HASTINGS, A B Tissue metabolism in vitamin deficiencies II Effect of thiamine deficiency *J Biol Chem*, 129 303, 1939
- 501 DRURY, A N, HARRIS, L J, and MALDSLEY, C Vitamin B deficiency in the rat Brady cardia as a distinctive feature *Biochem J*, 24 1632 1930
- 502 WEISS S., HAYNES F W, and ZOLL, P M Electrocardiographic manifestations and the cardiac effect of drugs in vitamin B₁ deficiency in rats *Am Heart J*, 15 206 1938
- 503 KING, W D, and SEBRILL, W H Alterations in the cardiac conduction mechanism in experimental thiamine deficiency *Pub Health Rep*, 61 410 1946
- 504 WINTROBE, M M, ALCAYAGA, R, HUMPHREYS S., and FOLLIS, R H JR Electrocardiographic changes associated with thiamine deficiency in pigs *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 73 169 1943
- 505 TOMAN, J E P., EVERETT G M, OSTER, R H, and SMITH, D C Origin of cardiac disorders in thiamine-deficient cats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 58 65 1945
- 506 FOLLIS, R H JR, MILLER, M H, WINTROBE, M M, and STEIN, H J Development of myocardial necrosis and absence of nerve degeneration in thiamine deficiency in pigs *Am J Path*, 19 341 1943
- 507 LU, G D Studies on the metabolism of pyruvic acid in normal and vitamin B₁-deficient state II Blood pyruvate levels in the rat pigeon rabbit and man III The relation of blood pyruvate to cardiac changes *Biochem J*, 33 774 1939

- 550 SINCHUR H O, KINSER C J, TAYLOR, H C, RHOADES C P, and UNNA K The effect of vitamin deficiency on estradiol inactivation by liver *J Biol Chem*, 154 79 1944
- 551 MANNERING, G J, ORSINI, D, and LLEWELLYN C A Effect of the composition of the diet on the riboflavin requirements of the rat *J Nutrition*, 28 141, 1944
- 552 SULLIVAN, M and NICHOLLS J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat IV Riboflavin deficiency *J Invest Dermatol*, 4 181, 1941
- 553 LILLINCOTT, S W, and MORRIS H P Pathologic changes associated with riboflavin deficiency in the mouse *J Nat Cancer Inst*, 2 601, 1942
- 554 POTTER R L, ANELROD A C and ELVEHJEM, C A The riboflavin requirement of the dog *J Nutrition*, 24 449, 1942
- 555 WINTROBE M M, BUSCHKE W, COLLIS R H, JR and HUMPHREYS S Riboflavin deficiency in swine *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 75 102 1944
- 556 WAIMAN, H A Production of riboflavin deficiency in the monkey *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 55 69 1944
- 557 BESSEY O A, and WOLBACH S B Vascularization of the cornea of the rat in riboflavin deficiency with a note on corneal vascularization in vitamin A deficiency *J Exper Med*, 69 1 1939
- 558 BESSEY, O A and LOWRY O H Factors influencing the riboflavin content of the cornea *J Biol Chem* 155 635 1944
- 559 PHILPOT F J and PIRIE, A Riboflavin and riboflavin adenine dinucleotide in ocular tissue *Biochem J*, 57 250, 1943
- 560 LOWRY O H and BESSEY O A The effects of light trauma riboflavin and riboflavinosis on the production of corneal vascularity and on healing of corneal lesions *J Nutrition*, 30 285 1945
- 561 DAY P L, DARBY W J and COSGROVE K W The arrest of nutritional cataract by the use of riboflavin *J Nutrition*, 15 83 1938
- 562 BAUM H M, MICHAELREE J F and BROWN, E B The quantitative relationship of riboflavin to cataract formation in the rat *Science*, 95 24, 1942
- 563 STREET H R, COWGILL G R, and ZIMMERMAN H M Further observations on riboflavin deficiency in the dog *J Nutrition*, 22 7 1941
- 564 SPECTOR H, MAASS A R, MICHAUD L, ELVEHJEM C A, and HART, E B The role of riboflavin in blood regeneration *J Biol Chem*, 150 75, 1943
- 565 WARIAN, J and NELSON R C Skeletal abnormalities induced in rats by maternal nutritional deficiency *Arch Path*, 34 375, 1942
- 566 WARIAN, J, SCHRAFFENBERGER E Congenital malformations induced by maternal nutritional deficiency VI The preventive factor *J Nutrition*, 27 475 1944
- 567 SHAW J H, and PHILLIPS P H The pathology of riboflavin deficiency in the rat *J Nutrition*, 22 345 1941
- 568 SEBRFULL W H and BUTLER R E Riboflavin deficiency in man (riboflavinosis) *Pub Health Rep* 54 2121 1939
- 569 KRUSE H D, SYDENSTRICKER V P, SEBRFULL W H and CLECKLEY, H M Ocular manifestations of riboflavinosis *Pub Health Rep*, 55 157 1940
- 570 HACHDORN D R, KLIJHOS C D, GERNICK O A, and SEVRINGHAUS F L Observations on riboflavin excretion by the adult male *J Nutrition*, 29 179 1945

- 529 ALEXANDER, L PIJOAN, M, MYERSON A., and KEANE, H N Beriberi and scurvy, an experimental study *Tr Am Neurol A*, 64 135, 1938
- 530 PRADOS, M and SWANK, R L Vascular and interstitial cell changes in thiamine deficient animals *Arch Neurol and Psychiat* 47 626 1942
- 531 SWANK, R L and JASPER, H H Electroencephalograms of thiamine deficient pigeons *Arch Neurol and Psychiat*, 47 821, 1942
- 532 WFNCKEBACH, K F *Das Beriberi Herz Morphologie Klinik Pathogenese* Julius Springer, Berlin und Wein 1934
- 533 KRAMPITZ, L O and WOOLLEY, D W The manner of inactivation of thiamine by fish tissue *J Biol Chem*, 152 9, 1944
- 534 WFISS S Occidental beriberi with cardiovascular manifestations *J A M A*, 115 832, 1940
- 535 WILLIANIS, R D, MASON, H L, SMITH, B F and WILDER, R M Induced thiamine (vitamin B₁) deficiency and the thiamine requirement of man further observations *Arch Int Med*, 69 721, 1942
- 536 LIU, J H and CHU, C K Problems of nutrition and dietary requirements in China *Chm Med J*, 61 95, 1943
- 537 NAJJAR V A and HOLT, L E The biosynthesis of thiamine in man *J A M A*, 123 683 1943
- 538 WILLIANIS, R D, MASON, H L POWER, M H, and WILDER, R M Induced thiamine (vitamin B₁) deficiency in man Relation of depletion of thiamine to development of biochemical defect and of polyneuropathy *Arch Int Med*, 71 38 1943
- 539 RIGGS H E and BOLES, R S Wernicke's disease A clinical and pathological study of 42 cases *Quart J Stud on Alcohol*, 5 361, 1944
- 540 HOU H C The dietary intake and urinary output of vitamin B₁ and their relation to beriberi among Chinese *Chm Med J*, 61 244, 1943
- 541 WINTROBE, M M Relation of nutritional deficiency to cardiac dysfunction *Arch Int Med*, 76 341, 1945
- 542 SMITH J J, and FURTH, J Fibrosis of the endocardium and the myocardium with mural thrombosis Notes on its relation to isolated (Fiedler's) myocarditis and to beriberi heart *Arch Int Med*, 71 602 1943
- 543 ALEXANDER L Wernicke's disease Identity of lesions produced experimentally by B₁ avitaminosis in pigeons with hemorrhagic polyencephalitis occurring in chronic alcoholism in man *Am J Path*, 16 61 1940
- 544 WARBURG O and CHRISTIAN, W Über ein neues Oxidationsferment und sein Absorptions spektrum *Biochem Zschr*, 254 438 1932
- 545 KUHN R GYORCY P and WACNER JALRECC T Über ein neu Klasse von Natur-farbstoffen *Ber d deutsch, chem Gesellsch*, 66 317 1933
- 546 KUHN R REINEMUND K WEYLAND F and STROBELE R Über die Synthese des Lactoflavins *Ber d deutsch Chem Gesellsch* 68 1765 1935
- 547 AXELROD, A E and ELVEHJEM, C A The xanthine oxidase content of rat liver in riboflavin deficiency *J Biol Chem*, 140 725 1941
- 548 SARETT H P, and PERLZWEIG W A The effect of protein and B vitamin levels of the diet upon the tissue content and balance of riboflavin and nicotinic acid in rats *J Nutrition*, 25 173, 1943
- 549 SURE, B Vitamin interrelationships III Influence of suboptimum doses of thiamine on urinary excretions of riboflavin *J Nutrition* 27 447 1944

- 550 SINCHUR, H O, KISSLER, C J, TAYLOR, H C, RHODES, C P and UNNA K The effect of vitamin deficiency on estradiol inactivation by liver *J Biol Chem*, 154 79, 1944
- 551 MANNFRING, G J, ORSINI D, and LIVIHIJEM, C A Effect of the composition of the diet on the riboflavin requirements of the rat *J Nutrition*, 24 141, 1944
- 552 SULLIVAN M and NICHOLIS J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat IV Riboflavin deficiency *J Invest Dermatol*, 4 181, 1941
- 553 LIPLINCOTT, S W, and MORRIS, H P Pathologic changes associated with riboflavin deficiency in the mouse *J Nat Cancer Inst*, 2 601 1942
- 554 POTTER R L, AXELROD A L and LIVIHIJEM C A The riboflavin requirement of the dog *J Nutrition*, 24 449, 1942
- 555 WINTROBE M M, BUSCHKE W, FOLLIS R H JR and HUMPHREYS S Riboflavin deficiency in swine *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 75 102, 1944
- 556 WATSMAN H A Production of riboflavin deficiency in the monkey *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 55 69, 1944
- 557 BESSEY, O A, and WOLBACH S B Vascularization of the cornea of the rat in riboflavin deficiency with a note on corneal vascularization in vitamin A deficiency *J Exper Med*, 69 1 1939
- 558 BESSEY, O A and LOWRY O H Factors influencing the riboflavin content of the cornea *J Biol Chem*, 155 635 1944
- 559 PHILPOT, F J, and PIRIE A Riboflavin and riboflavin adenine dinucleotide in ocular tissue *Biochem J*, 37 250, 1943
- 560 LOWRY O H and BESSEY O A The effects of light, trauma, riboflavin and riboflavinosis on the production of corneal vascularity and on healing of corneal lesions *J Nutrition*, 30 285 1945
- 561 DAY, P L, DARBY W J and COSGROVE K W The arrest of nutritional cataract by the use of riboflavin *J Nutrition*, 15 83 1938
- 562 BAUM H M, MICHAELREE, J F and BROWN E B The quantitative relationship of riboflavin to cataract formation in the rat *Science*, 95 24 1942
- 563 STREET H R, COWGILL G R and ZIMMERMAN H M Further observations on riboflavin deficiency in the dog *J Nutrition*, 22 7, 1941
- 564 SPECTOR H, MAASS A R, MICHAUD L, ELVEHJEM, C A and HART E B The role of riboflavin in blood regeneration *J Biol Chem*, 150 75, 1943
- 565 WARKANY J and NELSON R C Skeletal abnormalities induced in rats by maternal nutritional deficiency *Arch Path* 34 375 1942
- 566 WARKANY J, SCHRAFFENBERGER E Congenital malformations induced by maternal nutritional deficiency VI The preventive factor *J Nutrition*, 27 475 1944
- 567 SHAW J H and PHILLIPS P H The pathology of riboflavin deficiency in the rat *J Nutrition*, 22 345 1941
- 568 SEBRELL W H and BUTLER R E Riboflavin deficiency in man (riboflavinosis) *Pub Health Rep* 54 2121 1939
- 569 KRUSF H D, SYDENSTRICKER, V P, SEBRELL W H and CLECKLEY H M Ocular manifestations of riboflavinosis *Pub Health Rep*, 55 157 1940
- 570 HAGFDORN D R, KLJHOS E D, GERMEK O A., and SEVRINGHAUS E L Observations on riboflavin excretion by the adult male *J Nutrition* 29 179 1945

- 571 Hou, H C. Riboflavin deficiency among Chinese. 1. Ocular manifestations *Chin Med J*, 58 616 1940
- 572 Hou, H C. Riboflavin deficiency among Chinese. 2. Cheilosis and seborrheic dermatitis *Chin Med J*, 59 314, 1941
- 573 Hou, H C. Riboflavin deficiency among Chinese. 4. Glossitis *Chin Med J*, 62 152 1944
- 574 COLLING, A M. Some aspects of riboflavin nutrition in man *Nutr Abst and Rev*, 14 433, 1945
- 575 PARSONS, H F. Further studies on human requirements for riboflavin *Fed Proc*, 3 162, 1944
- 576 WARBURG, O. and CHRISTIAN, W. Co I ermentproblem *Biochem Z*, 275 464 1935
- 577 VON EULER, H. ALBERS H. and SCHENCK, F. Über die Coenzyme *Ztschr f p Chem*, 257 1, 1935
- 578 IYAHJIM, C A, MADDEN, R J, STONE, I M. WOOLLEY, D W. Relation of nicotinic acid and nicotinic acid amide to canine black tongue *J Am Chem Soc*, 59 1767, 1937
- 579 DANN, W J, and HANDLER P. The nicotinic acid and coenzyme content of the tissues of normal and blacktongue dogs *J Nutrition*, 22 409 1941
- 580 CHITTENDEN, R H. and UNDERHILL, I P. The production in dogs of a pathological condition which closely resembles human pellagra *Am J Physiol*, 44 13, 1917
- 581 WHITIER, G A. GOLDBERGER, J. and BLACKSTOCK, V. On probable identity of the Chittenden Underhill pellagra like syndrome in dogs and black tongue *Pub Health Rep*, 37 1063, 1922
- 582 GOLDBERGER, J. and WHITIER, G A. Experimental blacktongue of dogs and its relation to pellagra *Pub Health Rep*, 43 172 1928
- 583 DIXON, J. A study of the tissue changes in experimental black tongue of dogs compared with similar changes in pellagra *Am J Path*, 4 341 1928
- 584 DIXON, J. The pathology of pellagra *Am J Trop Med*, 5 173, 1925
- 585 HANDLER, P. Use of highly purified rations in the study of nicotinic acid deficiency *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 52 263 1943
- 586 SCHAFER, A F. MCKIBBIN, J M. and IYAHJIM, C A. Nicotinic acid deficiency studies in dogs *J Biol Chem*, 144 679 1942
- 587 HANDLER, P. and FAVERHURSTON, W P. The biochemical defect in nicotinic acid deficiency. II. On the nature of the anemia *J Biol Chem*, 151 395 1943
- 588 KRIEHL, W A. and IYAHJIM, C A. The importance of folic acid in rations low in nicotinic acid *J Biol Chem*, 158 173 1945
- 589 KRIEHL, W A. TILLEY, I J. and IYAHJIM, C A. Effect of corn grits on nicotinic acid requirements of the dog *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 58 334 1945
- 590 KRIEHL, W A. TILLEY, I J. and IYAHJIM, C A. Corn as an etiological factor in the production of a nicotinic acid deficiency in the rat *Science* 101 283 1945
- 591 KRIEHL, W A. TILLEY, I J. SARMA, P S. and IYAHJIM, C A. Growth retarding effect of corn in nicotinic acid low rations and its counteraction by tryptophane *Science*, 101 489 1945

- 592 WINTROBE, M M, STEIN, H J, FOLLIS R H JR, and HUMPHREYS S
Nicotinic acid and the level of protein in the nutrition of the pig *J Nutrition*, 30 395, 1945
- 593 HANDLER P, and DANN W J The biochemical defect in nicotinic acid deficiency *J Biol Chem*, 145 145 1942
- 594 ROSEN I, HUGH J W and PIRZWEIL W A The effect of tryptophan on the synthesis of nicotinic acid in the rat *J Biol Chem*, 163 343 1946
- 595 IRAZIER I I and FREIDMANN, T L Pellagra a study in human nutrition The multiple factor principle of the determination of minimum vitamin requirements *Quart Bull Northwest Univ Med School*, 20 24 1946
- 596 BRIGGS A P, SINCLAIR S A and SYDENSTRICKER V P A study of nicotinic acid restriction in man *J Nutrition*, 29 331 1945
- 597 RICH A R and FOLLIS R H JR Studies on the site of sensitivity in the Arthus phenomenon *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp* 66 106 1940
- 598 RUSZYNSKI S, and SZENT GYORGYI A Vitamin P flavonols as vitamins *Nature* 138 27 1936
- 599 UNDERHILL F P and MINDEL I B A dietary deficiency canine disease—further experiments on the diseased condition in dogs described as pellagra-like by Chittenden and Underhill and possibly related to so called black-tongue *Am J Physiol* 85 589 1928
- 600 WILLIAMS R J, LYMAN C M, GOODYEAR G H, TRULSDAIL J H and HOLADAY D Pantothenic acid a growth determinant of universal biological occurrence *J Am Chem Soc*, 55 2912 1933
- 601 WILLIAMS R J Pantothenic acid a vitamin *Science*, 89 486 1939
- 602 WILLIAMS R J, and MAJOR R T The structure of pantothenic acid *Science*, 91 246 1940
- 603 SUBBAROW, Y and HITCHINGS G H Pantothenic acid is a factor in rat nutrition *J Am Chem Soc*, 61 1615 1939
- 604 WRIGHT L D The effect of glucose administration on the level of blood pantothenic acid *J Biol Chem*, 142 445 1942
- 605 SCUDI J V, and HAMILIN M The effect of pantothenic acid deficiency on the blood lipoids of the dog *J Nutrition* 24 273 1942
- 606 SULLIVAN M, and NICHOLLS J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat VI The effect of pantothenic acid deficiency *Arch Dermat and Syph* 45 917 1942
- 607 McELROY L W, SALMON K, FICKE F H J and COWCILL, G R On the porphyrin nature of the fluorescent blood caked whiskers of pantothenic acid deficient rats *Science* 94 467 1941
- 608 ASHBURN L L The effects of administration of pantothenic acid on the histopathology of the filtrate factor deficiency state in rats *Pub Health Rep* 55 1537 1940
- 609 LIPPINCOTT S W and MORRIS H P Morphologic changes associated with pantothenic acid deficiency in the mouse *J Nat Cancer Inst* 2 39 1941
- 610 WINTROBE M M, FOLLIS R H JR, ALLAYACH R, PAULSON M and HUMPHREYS S Pantothenic acid deficiency in swine with particular reference to the effects on growth and on the alimentary tract *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 73 313 1943

- 611 IOLIS, R H, JR, and WINTROBE, M M A comparison of the effects of pyridoxine and pantothenic acid deficiencies on the nervous tissues of swine *J Exp Med*, 81 539 1945
- 612 SCHAEFER, A E, MCKIBBIN, J M and ELVEHJEM, C A Pantothenic acid deficiency in dogs *J Biol Chem*, 143 321 1942
- 613 SILBER, R H Studies of pantothenic acid deficiency in dogs *J Nutrition* 27 425, 1944
- 614 MCINTIRE, J M SCHWEIFERT, B S and ELVEHJEM, C A The nutrition of the cotton rat (*Sigmodon hispidus hispidus*) *J Nutrition*, 27 1, 1944
- 615 FIGGE, F H J and ATKINSON, W B Relation of water metabolism to porphyrin incrustations in pantothenic acid deficient rats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 48 112 1941
- 616 RATNER, S The iron content of teeth of normal and anemic rats *J Dent Res*, 15 89 1935
- 617 HART, E B STEENBOCK, H WADDELL, J and ELVEHJEM, C A Iron in nutrition VIII Copper as a supplement to iron for hemoglobin building in the rat *J Biol Chem* 77 797 1928
- 618 EGGLETON, W G E The zinc and copper contents of the organs and tissues of Chinese subjects *Biochem J* 34 991 1940
- 619 ELVEHJEM, C A and SHERMAN, W C The action of copper in iron metabolism *J Biol Chem*, 98 309 1932
- 620 STEIN, H B and LEWIS, R C The stimulating action of copper on erythropoiesis *J Nutrition* 6 465 1933
- 621 HOAGLAND, C L, WARD, S M, SMADEL, J L and RIVERS, T M Constituents of elementary bodies of vaccinia IV Demonstration of copper in pure virus *J Exper Med* 74 69 1941
- 622 OKAMOTO, K and UTAMURA, M Biologische Untersuchungen des Kupfers I Mitteilung Über die histochemische Kupernachweismethode *Acta scholae med univ imp in Kioto*, 20 573 1937-38
- 623 GOLDBERGER, J and LILLIE, R D A note on an experimental pellagra like condition in the albino rat *Pub Health Rep* 41 1025-29 1926
- 624 GYORGY, P Vitamin B and Pellagra-like Dermatitis in Rats *Nature* 155 498 1934
- 625 GYORGY, P Investigations on the vitamin B complex the differentiation of lactoflavin and the rat anti pellagra factor *Biochem J*, 29 741 1935
- 626 BIRCH, T W GYORGY, P and HARRIS, L J The vitamin B complex differentiation of the anti blacktongue and the PP factors from lactoflavin and B (so called rat pellagra factor) *Biochem J* 29 2830 1935
- 627 KERESZTESY, J C and STEVENS, J R Crystalline vitamin B *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 38 64 1938
- 628 STILLER, E T KERESZTESY, J C and STEVENS, J R The structure of vitamin B *J Am Chem Soc* 61 1237 1939
- 629 HARRIS, S A and FOLKERS, K Synthetic vitamin B *Science* 89 347 1939
- 630 GYORGY, P and ECKHARDT, R F Vitamin B₆ and Skin Lesions in rats *Nature*, 144 512 1939
- 631 SNELL, E E and RANFALL, A N The vitamin B group III The vitamin activity of pyridoxal and pyridoxamine for various organisms *J Biol Chem* 157 475 1945

- 632 CERELEDO L R., and FOY, J R Protein intake and pyridoxine deficiency in the rat *Arch Biochem*, 5 207, 1944
- 633 SURE, B., and FORD Z W, JR The influence of thiamine, riboflavin, pyridoxine and pantothenic acid deficiencies on nitrogen metabolism *J Nutrition*, 24 405, 1942
- 634 LEPKOVSKY, S., and NIELSEN, E. A green pigment-producing compound in urine of pyridoxine-deficient rats *J Biol Chem*, 144 135, 1942
- 635 LEPKOVSKY, S., ROBOZ C., and HAAGEN-SMIT, A J Xanthurenic acid and its role in tryptophane metabolism of pyridoxine-deficient rats *J Biol Chem*, 149 195 1943
- 636 REID D F., and LEIKOVSKY S The intermediary metabolism of tryptophane in pyridoxine deficient rats *J Biol Chem*, 155 299 1944
- 637 WINTROBE, M M., FOLLIS R H., JR MILLER, M H., STEIN H J ALCAYAGA, R., HUMPHREYS S SUKSA, A., and CARTWRIGHT G E Pyridoxine deficiency in swine *Bull Johns Hopkins Hospital*, 72 1 1943
- 638 CARTWRIGHT G E., WINTROBE, M M., JONES P J., LAURITSEN, M and HUMPHREYS S Tryptophane derivatives in urine of pyridoxine deficient swine *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 75 35 1944
- 639 AXELROD H E., MORGAN A F and LEPKOVSKY, S The fate of tryptophane in pyridoxine-deficient and normal dogs *J Biol Chem*, 160 155 1945
- 640 KENDALL, E C This isolation in the crystalline form of the compound containing iodine which occurs in the thyroid its chemical nature and physiological activity *J.A.M.A* 64 2042 1915
- 641 BELLAMY W D UNIBRIET W W and GUNSALUS I C The function of pyridoxine Conversion of members of the vitamin B₆ group into codecarboxylase *J Biol Chem* 160 461 1945
- 642 SULLIVAN M and NICHOLLS J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat I Vitamin B deficiency *J In est Dermatol*, 3 317 1940
- 643 ANTONPOL, W., and ULLA K Lesions produced by diets free of vitamin B₆ (pyridoxine) and their response to vitamin B *Arch Path*, 33 241 1942
- 644 GYÖRGY P Environmental temperature and 'rat acrodynia' *J Nutrition* 16 69 1938
- 645 KORNBERG A., TABOR H and SEBRELL W H Blood regeneration in pyridoxine deficient rats *Am J Physiol*, 143 434 1945
- 646 LEPKOVSKY S., and PARSONS D Effect of pyridoxine deficiency in the rat on the catalase activity of its tissues *J Biol Chem*, 149 286 1943
- 647 FOLTS P J., HELMER, O M LEPKOVSKY S and JUKES T H Production of microcytic hypochromic anemia in puppies on synthetic diet deficient in rat antidermatitis factor (vitamin B₆) *J Nutrition*, 16 197 1938
- 648 FOLTS P J HELMER, O M., and LEPKOVSKY S Nutritional microcytic hypochromic anemia in dogs cured with crystalline factor I *Am J Med Sci* 199 163, 1940
- 649 BORSON H J., and METTIER, S R Relief of hypochromic anemia in dogs with synthetic vitamin B₆ *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 43 429 1940
- 650 STREET H R COWGILL, G R., and ZIMMERMAN H M Some observations of vitamin B₆ deficiency in the dog *J Nutrition* 21 275 1941
- 651 MCHIBBIN J M., SCHAEFER, A E., FROST D V., and ELVEHJEM C A Studies on anemia in dogs due to pyridoxine deficiency *J Biol Chem* 142 77 1942

- 611 IOLLIS, R H, JR, and WINTROBE, M M A comparison of the effects of pyridoxine and pantothenic acid deficiencies on the nervous tissues of swine *J Exp Med*, 81 539 1945
- 612 SCHAEFER A E MCKIBBIN J M, and ELVEHJEM, C A Pantothenic acid deficiency in dogs *J Biol Chem*, 143 321, 1942
- 613 SILBER R H Studies of pantothenic acid deficiency in dogs *J Nutrition* 27 425, 1944
- 614 MCINTIRE J M SCHWEIKERT B S and ELVEHJEM, C A The nutrition of the cotton rat (*Sigmondon hispidus hispidus*) *J Nutrition*, 27 1, 1944
- 615 FICCE, F H J and ATKINSON, W B Relation of water metabolism to porphyrin incrustations in pantothenic acid deficient rats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 48 112 1941
- 616 RATNER S The iron content of teeth of normal and anemic rats *J Dent Res*, 15 89 1935
- 617 HART E B STEENBOCK H WADDELL, J and ELVEHJEM C A Iron in nutrition VIII Copper as a supplement to iron for hemoglobin building in the rat *J Biol Chem* 77 797 1928
- 618 EGCLFTON W G E The zinc and copper contents of the organs and tissues of Chinese subjects *Biochem J* 34 991 1940
- 619 ELVEHJEM C A and SHFRMAN W C The action of copper in iron metabolism *J Biol Chem*, 98 309 1932
- 620 STEIN H B and LEWIS R C The stimulating action of copper on erythropoiesis *J Nutrition* 6 465 1935
- 621 HOACLAND C L WARD S M SMADEL J L and RIVERS T M Constituents of elementary bodies of vaccinia IV Demonstration of copper in pure virus *J Exper Med* 74 69 1941
- 622 OKAMOTO K and UTAMURA M Biologische Untersuchungen des Kupfers I Mitteilung Über die histochemische Kupernachweismethode *Acta scholae med univ imp in Kioto* 20 573 1937-38
- 623 GOLDBERGER J and LILLIE, R D A note on an experimental pellagra like condition in the albino rat *Pub Health Rep* 41 1025-29 1926
- 624 GYÖRGY P Vitamin B and Pellagra-like Dermatitis in Rats *Nature* 133 498 1934
- 625 GYÖRGY P Investigations on the vitamin B complex the differentiation of lactoflavin and the rat anti pellagra factor *Biochem J* 29 741 1935
- 626 BIRCH T W GYÖRGY P and HARRIS L J The vitamin B complex differentiation of the anti blacktongue and the P P factors from lactoflavin and B (so called rat pellagra factor) *Biochem J* 29 2830 1935
- 627 KERESZTESY J C and STEVENS J R Crystalline vitamin B *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 38 64 1938
- 628 STILLER E T KERESZTESY J C and STEVENS J R The structure of vitamin B *J Am Chem Soc* 61 1257 1939
- 629 HARRIS S A and FOLAFERS K Synthetic vitamin B *Science* 89 347 1939
- 630 GYÖRGY P and ECKHARDT R E Vitamin B₆ and Skin Lesions in rats *Nature*, 144 512 1939
- 631 SNELL E E and RANFELLD A N The vitamin B group III The vitamin activity of pyridoxal and pyridoxamine for various organisms *J Biol Chem*, 157 475 1945

- 672 GYÖRCY, P. and GOLDBLATT H. Observations on the conditions of dietary hepatic injury (necrosis cirrhosis) in rats *J Exper Med*, 75 355 1942
- 673 ENCHET R W. and SALMON W D. Improved diets for nutritional and pathological studies of choline deficiency in young rats *J Nutrition*, 22 109 1941
- 674 HANDLER P. and DUBIN I N. The significance of fatty infiltration in the development of hepatic cirrhosis due to choline deficiency *J Nutrition* 51 141, 1946
- 675 MCKIBBIN J M. THAYER S. and STARE, F J. Choline deficiency studies in dogs *J Lab Clin Med* 29 1109 1944
- 676 DUTRA F R. and MCKIBBIN J M. The pathology of experimental choline deficiency in dogs *J Lab Clin Med* 50 301 1945
- 677 MCKIBBIN J M. FERRY R M. JR. THAYER S. PATTERSON E G. and STARE, F J. Further studies on choline deficiency in dogs *J Lab and Clin Med*, 50 422 1945
- 678 LILLIE, R D. ASHBURN I L. SEBRELL, W H. DAFT F S. and LOWRY J V. Histogenesis and repair of the hepatic cirrhosis in rats produced on low protein diets and preventable with choline *Pub Health Rep* 57 502 1942
- 679 LILLIE, R D. ASHBURN L L. SEBRELL S H. DAFT F A. and LOWRY J V. Histogenesis and repair of the hepatic cirrhosis in rats produced on low protein diets and preventable with choline *Pub Health Rep* 57 1 1942
- 680 POISSER H. GYÖRCY P. and GOLDBLATT H. Fluorescent material (ceroid) in experimental nutritional cirrhosis *Arch Path* 37 161 1944
- 681 LINDICOTT K M., DAFT F S. and SEBRELL, W H. Dietary cirrhosis without ceroid in rats *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 57 330 1944
- 682 CHRISTENSEN K. Renal changes in the albino rat on low choline and choline deficient diets *Arch Path*, 34 633 1942
- 683 WACHSTEIN M. Renal phosphatase in choline deficiency *Arch Path* 58 297 1944
- 684 EARLE D P. and VICTOR J. Cirrhosis of the liver caused by excess of dietary cystine *J Exper Med* 75 161 1941
- 685 CHANNON H J. HANSON S W F. and LOIZIDES P A. The effect of variations of diet fat on dietary fatty livers in rats *Biochem J*, 36 214 1942
- 686 HANDLER P. Factors affecting the occurrence of hemorrhagic kidneys due to choline deficiency *J Nutrition* 31 621 1946
- 687 MCLIFORD D J. and GRIFFITHS W H. Choline metabolism VIII. The relation of cystine and of methionine to the requirement of choline in young rats *J Nutrition* 23 91 1942
- 688 GYÖRCY P. and GOLDBLATT H. Thiouracil in the prevention of experimental dietary cirrhosis of liver *Science* 102 452 1945
- 689 HECSTED D M. MCKIBBIN J M., and STARE F J. The effect of atabrine on choline deficiency in the young rat *J Nutrition*, 27 149 1944
- 690 BELLOWES J G. and CHINN H. Intraocular hemorrhages in choline deficiency *Arch Ophth* 30 105 1943
- 691 MOONSVICK F B., SCHLEICHER, E M., and PETERSON W E. Progressive Addisonian pernicious anemia successfully treated with intravenous choline chloride *J Clin Invest* 24 278 1945

- 652 FOULIS R H JR The effects in rats of adding boron to a diet deficient in potassium *To be published*
- 653 CARTWRIGHT G L WINTROBE, M M, and HUMPHREYS S Studies on anemia in swine due to pyridoxine deficiency, together with data on phenylhydrazine anemia *J Biol Chem*, 153 171 1944
- 654 CHICK H ELI SADR, M M, and WORDEN, A N Occurrence of fits of an epileptiform nature in rats maintained for long periods on a diet deprived of vitamin B₆ *Biochem J*, 54 595 1940
- 655 WINTROBE M M MUSHATT, C MILLER J I JR KOHLI C, SREIN H J and LISCO H The prevention of sensory neuron degeneration in the pig with special reference to the role of various liver fractions *J Clin Invest* 21 71, 1942
- 656 HALLIDAY, N Fatty livers in vitamin B₆ deficient rats *J Nutrition*, 16 285, 1938
- 657 MINER D L MILLER J A BAUMANN C A and RUSCH H P The effect of pyridoxine and other B vitamins on the production of liver cancer with p dimethylaminazobenzene *Cancer Res*, 3 296 1943
- 658 BISCHOFF F INGRAHAM, L P and RUTH J J Influence of vitamin B₆ and pantothenic acid on growth of sarcoma 180 *Arch Path*, 35 713 1943
- 659 SPIES T D BRAN W B and ASHF W F A note on the use of vitamin B₆ in human nutrition *JAMA*, 112 2414 1939
- 660 SPIES, T D HICHLOWER, D P and HUBBARD L H Some recent advances in vitamin therapy *JAMA* 115 292 1940
- 661 HERSHEY J M Substitution of lecithin for raw pancreas in the diet of the depancreatized dog *Am J Physiol* 95 657 1930
- 662 BEST C H HERSHEY J M and HUNTSMAN M E The effect of lecithin on fat deposition in the liver of the normal rat *J Physiol*, 75 56 1932
- 663 BEST C H and HUNTSMAN M E The effects of the components of lecithin upon deposition of fat in the liver *J Physiol*, 75 405 1932
- 664 GRIFFITHS W H and WADE N J Some effects of low choline diets *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 41 188 1939
- 665 GYORGY P and GOLDBLATT H Choline as a member of the vitamin B complex *J Exper Med*, 72 1 1940
- 666 DUVICHAUD V The significance of labile methyl groups in the diet and their relation to transmethylation *Harvey Lectures*, p 59 1942 43 New York The Science Press
- 667 DUVICHAUD V CHANDLER J P COHN M and BROWN, G B The transfer of the methyl group from methionine to choline and creatine *J Biol Chem* 134 787, 1940
- 668 STETTIN DEW JR Biological relationships of choline ethanolamine and related compounds *J Biol Chem* 140 143 1941
- 669 STETTIN DEW JR The fate of dietary serine in the body of the rat *J Biol Chem*, 144 501 1942
- 670 PATTERSON, J M KFFAIL N B and MCHENRY, E W Choline and the prevention of hemorrhagic kidneys in the rat II Phospholipid turnover as determined with radioactive phosphorus *J Biol Chem* 153 489 1944
- 671 BOYER G E and STETTIN DEW The effect of dietary choline upon the rate of turnover of phosphatide choline *J Biol Chem* 155 617 1944

- 712 KORNBERG A, LABOR H and SHREFF W H Blood regeneration in rats deficient in biotin, thiamin and riboflavin *Am J Physiol* 145 54 1945
- 713 SYDENSTRICKER V P, SINCLAIR S A, BRIGGS A P, DE VAUGHN N M and ISHILL, H Observations on the "egg white injury" in man and its cure with a biotin concentrate *JAMA*, 118 1199 1942
- 714 OUEL, T W Studies of biotin metabolism in man *Am J Med Sc*, 204 856, 1942
- 715 DAY, P L, LANCSTON, W C and SHUKERS, C F Leucopenia and anemia in the monkey resulting from vitamin deficiency *J Nutrition* 9 637 1935
- 716 DAY P L, LANCSTON W C, DARBY W J, WAHLIN, J G and MINIS V Nutritional cytopenia in monkeys receiving the Goldberger diet *J Exper Med*, 72 463, 1940
- 717 SASLAW S, WILSON H E, DOAN C A and SCHWAB J I The vitamin M factor *Science*, 97 514 1943
- 718 DAY P L, MINIS V and TOTTER J R The relationship between vitamin M and the lactobacillus casei factor *J Biol Chem*, 161 45 1945
- 719 DAFT F S, and SHREFF W H The successful treatment of granulocytopenia and leukopenia in rats with crystalline folic acid *Pub Health Rep*, 58 1542 1943
- 720 MITCHELL H K, SNELL E E and WILLIAMS R J Concentration of folic acid' *J Am Chem Soc*, 63 2284 1941
- 721 ANGIER R B and OTHERS Synthesis of a compound identical with the *L casei* factor isolated from liver *Science* 102 228 1945
- 722 ANGIER R B and OTHERS The structure and synthesis of the liver *L casei* factor *Science* 103 667 1946
- 723 SPICER S S, DAFT F S, SHREFF W H and ASHBURN L L Prevention and treatment of agranulocytosis and leukopenia in rats given sulfanilylguanidine or succinylsulfathiazole in purified diets *Pub Health Rep* 57 1559 1942
- 724 SASLAW S, SCHWAB J L, WOOLPERT O C and WILSON H E Reactions of monkeys to experimental respiratory infections VI Spontaneous and experimental infections in nutritional deficiency states *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 51 591, 1942
- 725 SPIES T D, VILTER C F, KOCH M B and CALDWELL M H Observations on the antianemic properties of synthetic folic acid *Sou Med J* 35 707 1945
- 726 VILTER C F, SPIES T D and KOCH M B Further studies on folic acid in the treatment of microcytic anemia *Sou Med J* 38 781 1945
- 727 DARBY W J and JONES F Treatment of sprue with synthetic *L casei* factor (folic acid vitamin M) *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 60 259 1945
- 728 MOORE C V, BIERBAUM O S, WELCH A D and WRIGHT I D The activity of synthetic lactobacillus casei factor ('folic acid') as an anti-pernicious anemia substance I Observations on four patients two with Addisonian pernicious anemia one with nontropical sprue and one with pernicious anemia of pregnancy *J Lab and Clin Med* 30 1056 1945

- 692 BOAS M A An observation on the value of egg white as the sole source of nitrogen for young growing rats The effect of desiccation upon the nutritive properties of egg white *Biochem J*, 21 712, 1927
- 693 GYÖRGY, P The curative factor (vitamin H) for egg white injury, with particular reference to its presence in different foodstuffs and in yeast *J Biol Chem*, 131 733, 1939
- 694 ALLISON, F E, HOOVER, S R, and BURK, D A respiration coenzyme *Science*, 78 217, 1933
- 695 KOGL F and TÖNNIS B Über das Bios-Problem Darstellung von kristallisierten Biotin aus Eigelb *Ztschr f physiol Chem*, 242 43 1936
- 696 WEST, P M, and WILSON P W The relation of "coenzyme R" to biotin *Science*, 89 607, 1939
- 697 DUVIGNEAUD, V, MELVILLE D B GYÖRGY, P, and ROSE, C S On the identity of vitamin H with biotin *Science*, 92 62 1940
- 698 DUVIGNEAUD V The structure of biotin *Science*, 96 453 1942
- 699 HARRIS, S A, WOLF D E MOZINGO R and FOLKERS K Synthetic biotin *Science*, 97 447, 1943
- 700 EAKIN, R E, SNELL, E E, and WILLIAMS R J The concentration and assay of avidin the injury producing protein in raw egg white *J Biol Chem*, 140 535 1941
- 701 PENNINGTON D SNELL E E and EAKIN R E Crystalline avidin *J Am Chem Soc*, 64 469 1942
- 702 SUMNERSON W H, LEE, J M, and PARTRIDGE, C W H The effect of biotin on the metabolism of liver slices from biotin deficient rats *Science* 100 250 1944
- 703 SULLIVAN M and NICHOLLS J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat V Signs and symptoms resulting from a diet containing unheated dried egg white as the source of protein *Arch Dermat and Syph*, 45 293 1942
- 704 SULLIVAN M KOLB L, and NICHOLLS J Nutritional dermatoses in the rat VII Notes on the posture gait and hypertonicity resulting from a diet containing unheated dried egg white as the source of protein *Bull Johns Hopkins Hosp*, 70 177 1942
- 705 COOPERMAN J M WAISMAN H A and ELVEHJEM C A Nutrition of the golden hamster *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 52 250 1943
- 706 LEASE, J G, PARSONS H T and KELLY E A comparison in five types of animals of the effects of dietary egg white and of a specific factor given orally or parenterally *Biochem J*, 31 433, 1937
- 707 WAISMAN H A MCCALL K B and ELVEHJEM C A Acute and chronic biotin deficiencies in the monkey (macaca mulatta) *J Nutrition* 29 1 1945
- 708 NIELSEN E and ELVEHJEM C A Cure of paralysis in rats with biotin concentrates and crystalline biotin *J Biol Chem*, 144 405 1942
- 709 SHAW J H and PHILLIPS P H Pathological studies of acute biotin deficiency in the rat *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 51 406 1942
- 710 DUVIGNEAUD V SPANGLER, J M BURK D KENSLE C J SUCIURA K and RHOADES C P The procarcinogenic effect of biotin in butter yellow tumor formation *Science*, 95 174 1942
- 711 RUEGAMER, W R MICHAUD L ELVEHJEM C A and HARRIS E B Growth and hemoglobin production in dogs on purified rations *Am J Physiol* 145 23, 1945

- 751 RATH, I. P., RUBIN, S. H., and RINZLER, S. The liver lipids in normal human livers and in cases of cirrhosis and fatty infiltration of the liver *J Clin Invest*, 20 93 1940
- 752 CONNOR C. L. Fatty infiltration of the liver and the development of cirrhosis in diabetes and chronic alcoholism *Am J Path* 14 347 1938
- 753 PATEK A. J., and POSI J. Treatment of cirrhosis of the liver by a nutritious diet and supplements rich in vitamin B complex *J Clin Invest*, 20 481 1940
- 754 BEATH, J., HERBERT P. H., WICHIE, C., and SUFFLE C. W. Studies on hepatic dysfunction. I. Carbon tetrachloride poisoning treated with casein digest and methionine *Brit M J*, 1 209 1944
- 755 GINN J. T. and VOLKMER J. F. Effect of cadmium and fluorine on the rat dentition *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 57 189, 1944
- 756 SHIMIN D. and RITTENBERG D. Studies on the formation of heme and on the average life time of the human red blood cell *Fed Proc*, 5 153 1946
- 757 SMITH W. A. Periodic paralysis. Report of two fatal cases *J Nerv and Ment Dis*, 90 210 1939
- 758 DIAN H. T., ARNOID F. A. and ELVOFF E. Domestic water and dental caries. V. Additional studies of the relation of fluoride domestic waters to dental caries *Pub Health Rep*, 57 1155 1942
- 759 MCCOLLUM E. V. and KENNEDY C. The dietary factors operating in the production of polyneuritis *J Biol Chem* 24 491 1916
- 760 CHEFRAVION M. and COMHAIRE S. Detection cytochemique de lactoflavine dans le foie de cobaye et etude de ses variations provoquées par le cyclopentylidipitrophenol *Arch f exp Zellforsch* 22 65b 1939
- 761 SMITH M. I. and HENDRICK E. G. Some nutrition experiments with brewers yeast *Pub Health Rep* 41 201 1926
- 762 MCCOLLUM E. V. and DAVIS M. The influence of the composition and amount of the mineral content of the ration on growth and reproduction *J Biol Chem*, 21 615 1915
- 763 TLRESI J. D., HOFF E., ELVEHJIM C. A. and HARI L. B. Further studies of boron in the nutrition of the rat *Am J Physiol* 140 513 1944
- 764 BRECHLER, W. E., and THORNTON H. G. The relation between the development structure and functioning of the nodules on *vicia faba* as influenced by the presence or absence of boron in the nutrient medium *Proc Roy Soc, London S B* 98 373 1925
- 765 DARROW D. C. The retention of electrolyte during recovery from severe dehydration due to diarrhea *J Pediat* 28 515 1946
- 766 NELSON M. M. and EVANS H. M. Pantothenic acid deficiency and reproduction in the rat *J Nutrition* 31 497 1946
- 767 FERRARO A. and ROIZIN L. Histopathology of the central nervous tissue in experimental vitamin K deficiency (vitamin K deficiency hemorrhagic diathesis) *J Neuropath and Exp Neurol*, 2 392 1943
- 768 MOORE R. A., SPIES T. D. and COOPER Z. K. Histopathology of the skin in pellagra *Arch Dermat and Syph* 46 100 1942
- 769 WOOLLEY D. W. The occurrence of a pellagragenic agent in corn *J Biol Chem*, 163 773 1946
- 770 CHAMBERS R. and CAMERON G. The effect of l-ascorbic acid on epithelial sheets in tissue culture *Am J Physiol* 139 21 1943

- 729 DOW, C A, WILSON, H E and WRIGHT C Folic acid (I casei factor) an essential pan-hemopoietic factor experimental and clinical studies *Ohio State Med J*, 42 139, 1946
- 730 ZUELZER W W, and ODEB, F N Megaloblastic anemia in infancy A common syndrome responding specifically to folic acid therapy *Am J Dis Child*, 77 211 1946
- 731 WOOLLEY D W A new dietary essential for the mouse *J Biol Chem*, 136 113 1940
- 732 FOLCH J and WOOLLEY D W Inositol a constituent of a brain phosphatide *J Biol Chem*, 142 963, 1942
- 733 ENCH, R W The relation of B-vitamins and dietary fat to the lipotropic action of choline *J Nutrition*, 24 175, 1942
- 734 FOLCH R H JR, and HANSON J Unpublished observations
- 735 WOOLLEY, D W A method for the estimation of inositol *J Biol Chem*, 140 453 1941
- 736 NILSEN E and BLACK, A Role of inositol in alopecia of rats fed sulfasuxidine *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 55 14 1944
- 737 ABELS J C, KLUH C W, PACK G T, and RHOADS C P Metabolic studies in patients with cancer of the gastro-intestinal tract XV Lipotropic properties of inositol *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 54 157 1943
- 738 ANSBACHER S P aminobenzoic acid a vitamin *Science*, 93 164 1941
- 739 BURR G O and BURR M M A new deficiency disease produced by the rigid exclusion of fat from the diet *J Biol Chem*, 82 345 1929
- 740 BURR, G O and BURR M M On the nature and role of the fatty acids essential in nutrition *J Biol Chem*, 86 587, 1930
- 741 SCHONHEIMER R and RITTENBERG D The study of intermediary metabolism of animals with the aid of isotopes *Physiol Rev* 20 218 1940
- 742 WILLIAMSON R A note on the epidermis of the rat on a fat-free diet *Biochem J* 35 100, 1941
- 743 BORI AND V G and JACKSON C M Effects of a fat-free diet on the structure of the kidney in rats *Arch Path* 11 687 1931
- 744 EVANS H M LEIKOVSKY S and MURPHY E A Vital need of the body for certain unsaturated fatty acids VI Male sterility on fat free diets *J Biol Chem* 106 44, 1934
- 745 MAFEDER E C The effect of fat in simplified diets on the reproductive organs of the female albino rat during gestation *Anat Rec*, 70 73 1937
- 746 HANSEN, A E and WIRSE H F Studies with dogs maintained on diets low in fat *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med*, 52 20, 1943
- 747 BURR, G O Significance of the essential fatty acids *Fed Proc* 1 224 1942
- 748 HANSEN A E Serum lipids in eczema and in other pathologic conditions *Am J Dis Child*, 5, 933 1937
- 749 RICHTER C P and CLISBY K H Graying of the hair produced by ingestion of phenylthiocarbamide *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 48 684 1941
- 750 TOWBIN E J FANTA P E and HODGE H C The porphyrin of Harder's gland *Proc Soc Exp Biol and Med* 60 228 1945

AUTHOR INDEX

(The numbers herein refer to the references in the bibliography)

- Abels J C., 73,
 Abt, A F., 785
 Ahmann C F 161
 Albanese A A., 229 231 237 238 243 249
 251 255 265 285
 Albers H., 577
 Alcajaga R., 504 610 637
 Alexander L., 529 543
 Alfredson B V., 91
 Allison F L., 694
 Althausen T., 407
 Altschule M D., 308
 Amdur M O., 173
 Anderson F W., 236
 Andrus W DeW., 439
 Anger R B., 721 722
 Anonymous,
 Med Res Council, 3
 Ansbacher S 437 738
 Antopol W., 643
 Armstrong W D 223
 Arnold F A 224 758
 Aschoff L., 484
 Ashburn L L 494 608 678 679 723
 Ashe W F., 659
 Astwood E B., 199
 Archley D W., 82 102 104
 Atkinson W B., 615
 Auer J 50
 Axelrod A E. 80 547 554
 Axelrod H E., 639

 Bale W F., 123
 Banga I 53
 Barlow T., 468
 Barnes L L 171
 Barnes R H 396
 Barron E S G 492 493
 Bartlett M K., 466 790
 Bauer C D 269
 Baum H M 562
 Baumann C A 447 657
 Baumann E 193
 Beal V A., 6
 Bean W B 297 659
 Beattie J., 754
 Becker J E., 352
 Becks H., 68 69 70
 Bellamy W D 641
 Bellows J G., 690
 Bennetts H W., 139 146
 Berg B N., 44
 Berg C P., 269

 Berry C 521
 Berry L J 8
 Berry M H., 332
 Bessey O A., 317 328 451 474 475 476
 524 557 558 560
 Best C H 667 663
 Bierbaum O S., 728
 Bills C E 357
 Birch T W., 626
 Bischoff F 658
 Bishop K S 390
 Bissell A., 199
 Bittinger I., 444
 Black A., 355 736 780
 Blackfan K D 341
 Blackstock V 581
 Bloch K 254 767
 Bloom W 364
 Blumberg H 23
 Boas E 784
 Boas M A 692
 Boelter M D D 39 42 43
 Boles R S 539
 Bond M., 471
 Borland V G 743
 Borson H J 649
 Bourne G 457 789
 Boyer P D 83 170
 Boyle P 347 382 429 473 474 475 476 477
 Boxer G E 671
 Brechley W E 764
 Brenner S 340
 Brewer A K 19
 Briggs A P 596 713
 Briges G M 526 527
 Brinkhous K M 400 438
 Brison W L., 404
 Brown E B., 562
 Brown E F., 420
 Brown G B 667
 Brown M R., 782
 Brumbach J E Jr., 243 285
 Bull L B., 158
 Burk D 694 710
 Burke B S 6
 Burn C G., 335
 Burr G O., 392 396 402 739 740 747
 Burr M M 739 740
 Burroughs E W., 280
 Burroughs, H S., 280
 Buschke W., 231 233 234 318 460 555
 Butler R E., 568
 Butt H R., 510
 Butts J S., 246 253

- 771 WOLBACH, S B Vitamin A Deficiency and excess in relation to skeletal growth *Proc Inst Med, Chicago*, 16 Apr 15, 1946
- 772 JONES J H, FOSTER, C, DORFMAN, F, and HUNTER, G Effects on the albino mouse of feeding diets very deficient in each of several vitamin B factors (thiamine, riboflavin, pyridoxine and pantothenic acid) *J Nutrition*, 29 127, 1945
- 773 MARTIN A J P, and MOORE T Some effects of prolonged vitamin C deficiency in the rat *J Hyg*, 39 643, 1939
- 774 ROUTH, J I and HOUGHIN, O B Some nutritional requirements of the hamster *Fed Proc*, 1 191, 1942
- 775 HAMILTON, J W, and HOGAN, A G Nutritional requirements of the Syrian hamster *J Nutrition*, 27 213, 1944
- 776 WINTROBE M M *Clinical Hematology*, Lea and Febiger, Philadelphia 1944
- 777 DARBY, W J The oral manifestations of iron deficiency *JAMA*, 130 830, 1946
- 778 RHODES, C P, CASTLE, W B, PAYNE, G C and LAWSON, H A Observations on the etiology and treatment of anemia associated with hook-worm infestation in Puerto Rico *Medicine*, 13 317, 1934
- 779 KESTEN, H D SALCEDO J and STETTIN, DEW Fatal myocarditis in choline deficient rats fed ethyl laurate *J Nutrition*, 29 171, 1945
- 780 NIELSEN L., and BLACK A Biotin and folic acid deficiencies in the mouse *J Nutrition*, 28 203 1944
- 781 DOGRAMACI I Scurvy A survey of two hundred and forty one cases *New Eng J Med*, 235 185, 1946
- 782 BROWN M R CURRENS, J H and MARCHAND J F Muscular paralysis and electrocardiographic abnormalities resulting from potassium loss in chronic nephritis *JAMA*, 124 545 1944
- 783 HOLLER, J W Potassium deficiency occurring during the treatment of diabetic acidosis *JAMA*, 131 1186, 1946
- 784 MACCALLUM W G LINTZ, J VERMILYE H N, LECCHT T H and BOAS E The effect of pyloric obstruction in relation to gastric tetany *Bull J Hopkins Hosp*, 31 1 1920
- 785 ABT, A F and FARMER C J Vitamin C Pharmacology and therapeutics *JAMA*, 111 1555, 1938
- 786 ZACHO C E The influence of ascorbic acid and of citrin on the capillary resistance of guinea pigs *Acta Path et Microbiol Scand*, 16 144, 1939
- 787 STEINBERG, R A Correlations between biological essentiality and atomic structure of the chemical elements *J Agr Res*, 57 851, 1938
- 788 LOWENHAUPT E, and GREENBERG D M Renal changes associated with a chloride deficient diet in the rat *Arch Path*, 42 49 1946
- 789 BOURNE, G Vitamin P deficiency in guinea pigs *Nature*, 152 659 1943
- 790 BARTLETT, M K JONES C M and RYAN A E Vitamin C and wound healing II Ascorbic acid content and tensile strength of healing wounds in human beings *New Eng J Med*, 226 474 1942
- 791 GREENWALD I Is endemic goiter due to a lack of iodine *J Clin Endocrin* 6 708 1946

- Emerson G A., 394 418
 Emerson O H., 394
 Emmel A F., 475 478
 Endicott K M., 88 681
 Engel R W., 519 673 733
 Engman M L., 61 62
 Engman M F., Jr., 61 67
 Eppstein S H., 286 419
 Euler H von, 57
 Evans C A., 497
 Evans H M., 390 397 394 407 418 744 766
 Evans, R J., 716
 Evans S L., 146
 Evans, V J., 60 63 374
 Everett G M., 495 505
 Everson C J., 168

 Fanta P F., 750
 Farber S., 149
 Farmer C J., 481 785
 Featherstone W P., 587
 Fenn W O., 85 416
 Fernholz, L., 437
 Ferraro A., 767
 Ferrebee J W., 87 101 107 104
 Ferry R M., Jr., 677
 Figge F H J., 607 615
 Field J B., 447
 Filmer J F., 152 154 155
 Finkelstein, J., 487
 Folch J., 732
 Folkers K., 679 699
 Follis R H Jr., 87 93 94 96 110 115
 185 234 385 386 388 472 479 498
 504 506 522 555 592 597 610 611
 637 652 734
 Ford Z W., Jr., 633
 Foster C., 772
 Foster W C 217
 Fouts 647 648
 Foy J R., 632
 Franklin A L 196
 Frankston J E 229 238 243 249 251 285
 Frazier C N., 323
 Frazier E I 595
 Freeman S., 118
 Friedemann T E 595
 Friedenwald J S., 318 460
 Frische H 395
 Frost D V., 151 631
 Funk C., 1 486
 Furth J., 542
 Furuta W J., 68 69 70
 Fuson R C., 306

 Geiling E. M K., 244
 Genty M K., 82
 Germek O A., 570
 Gerish L., 79
 Getting V A., 222
 Gillespie M., 241
 Ginn J T., 755
 Clock G E., 371
 Glynn L E., 774
 Godden W., 73 74
 Goettsch M., 405 411 416 470 474
 Goldberger J., 581 582 623
 Goldblatt H., 375 665 672 680 688
 Goldinger J M., 493
 Columbic C 399
 Goodell J P B., 282
 Goodof I L., 105
 Goodwin T C., 191
 Goodyear G H., 600
 Gordon H H., 455
 Gould B S 459
 Granados H., 430 431 432
 Green H H., 141 145
 Green J R., 38
 Green R G., 497
 Greenberg D M 39 42 43 56 66 121
 127 361 362 788
 Greenwald I., 212 791
 Griffiths 664 687
 Grollman A., 111
 Grussner A., 449
 Guild H., 471
 Gunsalus I C 641
 Gutman A B., 369 370
 Gutman E B., 369 370
 György P., 545 624 625 626 630 644 665
 672 680 688 693 697

 Haagen Smut A J., 635
 Hagedorn D R., 570
 Haines W J., 260 287 288
 Hahn P F., 123
 Hall S R., 333
 Hall W K., 242 268
 Halliday N 656
 Halsted W S., 207
 Halverson A W., 205
 Ham A W 470
 Hamlin M., 605
 Hamilton J., 775
 Hamilton T S., 276
 Handler P., 579 585 587 593 674 686
 Hansen A E., 746 748
 Hanson H T., 396
 Hanson J., 734
 Hanson P C., 282
 Hanson, S W F., 685
 Harley R., 146
 Harrer C J., 457
 Harris H A., 240

- Cahill W M 250 259 263
 Caldwell M H 725
 Cillaway C P 480
 Cameron G 770
 Cameron H C 376
 Canaga B L 29
 Cannon P R 9
 Carlson W E 497
 Carman J S 391
 Carnes W H 101
 Carpenter C P 284
 Carruthers C 14
 Carter J R 256
 Cartwright G E 234 637 638 653
 Castle W B 778
 Caviness H L 339
 Cerccedo 632
 Chaikoff I L 181 187 188 194 195 196
 Chalal J 32
 Chambers R 40 770
 Chandler J P 271 272 667
 Channon H J 685
 Chapman A 198
 Chapman F E 139
 Chase W E 9
 Chevrement M 760
 Chick H 654
 Chinn H 690
 Chittenden R H 580
 Christ R C 306
 Christensen K 682
 Christian W 544 576
 Chu C K 536
 Church C F 578
 Clark E 513
 Clarl P F 10 11 13
 Clayton M M 391
 Cleckley H M 569
 Cline J K 487
 Clinton M 149
 Clisby K H 749
 Cloetens R 165 177
 Cohn M 271 667
 Cohn W E 362
 Collier E S 180
 Comhaire S 760
 Connor C L 752
 Converse H T 333
 Cook S F 129
 Cooper Z K 768
 Cooperman J M 705
 Coplan H M 204
 Copping A M 574
 Cosgrove 561
 Cox G J 245
 Cowgill G R 563 607 650
 Cramer W 64
 Crandon, J H 465
 Currens J H 787
 Cuthbertson E M 121 127
 Daft F S 294 443 678 679 681 719 723
 Dam H 430 431 437 434 435 436 445
 Daniel E P 31
 Daniels A L 168
 Dann W J, 2 339 579 593
 Darby W J 2 248 561 716 777 777
 Darrow D C 97 98 100 103 765
 Davies A W 309
 Davis J 8
 Davis M 300 514 767
 Davis R M., 250 259 263
 Davison C 518
 Day H G 114 115 184 185 186
 Day P L 217 561 715 716 718
 Dean 219 221 774 758
 Denton J 583 584
 DeRobertis E 45
 DeVaughn N M., 713
 Dickie M M 15
 Dill D B 465
 Doan C A 717 779
 Dodds G S 376
 Dogramaci L, 781
 Donovan J C 736
 Dorfman F 772
 Dorrance S R 149
 Doty J R 268
 Drinker K R 180
 Drury A N., 501
 Dubach R 174
 Dubin I N 674
 Duckworth J 73 74
 Dunham C W 330
 Dunlop G 140 147
 Durlacher S H 103
 Dutra F R 676
 DuVigneaud V 771 277 666 667 697
 698 710
 Eakin R E 700 701
 Earle D P 684
 Eastman N J 446
 Eaton A G 268
 Eckardt R E 630
 Eden A 141 143
 Edmonds H W 149
 Eggleton W G E 618
 Eijkman C 485 511
 Eisenberger S 365
 Eliot M M 378 386
 Ellis G H., 132 172
 Elliott H C 470
 El Sadr M M 654
 Elvehjem C A 10 11 13 16 70 26 80
 90 138 150 151 162 174 178 187 188
 189 190 197 296 483 526 527 547
 551 554 564 578 586 588 589 590
 591 617 614 617 619 651 705 707
 708 711 763
 Elvove F 219 221 224 758

- Emerson, G. A., 394 418
 Emerson, O. H., 394
 Emmel, A. F., 475 4 8
 Endicott, A. M., 88 681
 Engel, R. W., 519 673 733
 Engman, M. F., 61 67
 Engman, M. F., Jr., 61 67
 Epstein, S. H., 786, 419
 Euler, H. von, 577
 Evans, C. A., 497
 Evans, H. M., 390 39 394 407 418 744 766
 Evans, R. J., 16
 Evans, S. L., 147
 Evans, V. J., 60 63 374
 Everett, G. M., 495 505
 Everson, G. J., 168

 Fanta, P. F., 750
 Farber, S., 149
 Farmer, C. J., 481 785
 Featherstone, W. P., 587
 Fenn, W. O., 85 416
 Fernholz, E., 437
 Ferraro, A., 767
 Ferrebee, J. W., 87 101 102 104
 Ferry, R. M., Jr., 677
 Figge, F. H. J., 607 615
 Field, J. B., 447
 Filmer, J. F., 152 154 155
 Finkelstein, J., 497
 Folch, J., 737
 Folkers, K., 679 699
 Folles, R. H., Jr., 87 93 94 96 110 115
 185 234 385 386 388 472 479 498
 504 506 522 555 597 597 610 611
 637 652 734
 Ford, Z. W., Jr., 633
 Foster, C., 772
 Foster, W. C., 217
 Fouts, 647 648
 Foy, J. R., 632
 Franklin, A. L., 196
 Frankston, J. E., 229 238 243 249 251 283
 Frazier, C. N., 323
 Frazier, E. L., 595
 Freeman, S., 118
 Friedemann, T. E., 595
 Friedenwald, J. S., 318 460
 Fritsche, H., 393
 Frost, D. V., 151 651
 Funk, C., 1 486
 Furth, J., 542
 Furuta, W. J., 68 69 70
 Fuson, R. C., 306

 Gaddum, L. W., 25
 Gagnon, J. A., 72
 Gamble, J. I., 49
 Gangstad, L. O., 418
 Gardner, R. L., 278

 Geising, E. M. K., 44
 Gentry, M. K., 87
 Germek, O. A., 570
 Gersh, L., 79
 Getting, V. A., 72
 Gillespie, M., 241
 Ginn, J. T., 755
 Clock, G. L., 371
 Gilman, L. E., 274
 Codden, W., 73 74
 Goettsch, M., 403 411 416, 4 0 474
 Goldberger, J., 581 587 623
 Goldblatt, H., 375 665 672 680 688
 Guldinger, J. M., 493
 Columbic, C., 399
 Goodell, J. P. B., 287
 Goodof, I. L., 103
 Goodwin, T. C., 191
 Goodyear, G. H., 600
 Gordon, H. H., 455
 Gould, B. S., 459
 Granados, H., 430 431 432
 Green, H. H., 141 143
 Green, J. R., 38
 Green, R. G., 497
 Greenberg, D. M., 39 42 43 56, 66 121
 122 361 367 788
 Greenwald, L., 212 791
 Griffiths, 664 687
 Grollman, A., 111
 Grussner, A., 449
 Guild, H., 471
 Gunsalus, I. C., 641
 Gutman, A. B., 369 370
 Gutman, E. B., 369 370
 Gyorgy, P., 545 624 625 676 630 644 663
 672 680 688 693 697

 Haagen Smut, A. J., 635
 Hagedorn, D. R., 570
 Haines, W. J., 260 287 288
 Hahn, P. F., 123
 Hall, S. R., 333
 Hall, W. K., 247 268
 Halliday, N., 656
 Halsted, W. S., 207
 Halverson, A. W., 205
 Ham, A. W., 470
 Hamlin, M., 605
 Hamilton, J., 775
 Hamilton, T. S., 276
 Handler, P., 579 585 587 593 674 686
 Hansen, A. E., 746 748
 Hanson, H. T., 396
 Hanson, J., 734
 Hanson, P. C., 282
 Hanson, S. W. F., 685
 Harley, R., 147
 Harter, C. J., 457
 Harris, H. A., 240

- Harris L J., 501 626
 Harris P L., 398
 Harris S A 629 699
 Harrison T R 111
 Hart C B 20 26 90 151 167 174 178
 187, 188 189 190 192 205 526 527,
 564 617 711 763
 Harvey H I 289
 Hastings A B 500
 Hawkins W B 282
 Haynes F W 507 508
 Heard C V., 277
 Heath C W., 126 127
 Hegsted D M 264 526 689
 Heinrich M R 427
 Heitzer K 247
 Helfenstein A., 304
 Hellerman L., 166
 Hellman L M 444 446
 Hellwig C A 201
 Helmer O M 647 648
 Henderson L M., 138
 Hendrick E. C 761
 Herbert P H 754
 Hershey J M 661 662
 Hess A F 356 358
 Heuser G F., 173
 Hewston C H., 31
 Hibbs R E., 295
 Hickman K C D., 398
 Hightower D P 660
 Himsworth H P 274
 Hinsey J C., 571
 Hirst E L 450
 Hitchens G H 603
 Hoagland C L., 671
 Hock C W., 242
 Hodge H C., 750
 Hoff H E., 81
 Hoffman M M 336
 Hogan A G 775
 Hojer J A 469
 Holaday D., 600
 Holler H W., 783
 Holm E 321
 Holmberg C G 176
 Holt L E., 229 237 238 243 251 255
 285 537
 Hooker C W., 7
 Hoover S R 694
 Hopkins F G 227
 Hou H C 540 571 572 573
 Houchin O B., 397 422 423 476 774
 Hove E. 20 26 178 187 188 189 190
 192 765
 Howe P R., 312 313 319 334 382 462 476
 Howland J 116 353 366 368
 Hsu H., 338
 Hu C 323
 Hu D G., 81
 Hubbard L H 660
 Huff J W 594
 Huffman C F 330
 Hunter A H 141 143
 Huldshinsky K 354
 Humphreys S 234 498 504 527 555 597
 610 637 638 653
 Hunt A H., 464
 Hunter G 772
 Huntsman M E 662 663
 Hyde J E 84
 Ingraham L P 658
 Innes J R M 142 144 145
 Irby V 238 251 285
 Irving J T 71
 Isbell H 713
 Jackson C M., 17 743
 Jackson D 191 385 386 388 471
 Jasper H H 531
 Jay P 724
 Jenner H D., 52
 Jervis G A., 273
 Jewett H J 343
 Johnson J E. 260 287 288
 Johnson M L 327
 Jones C M., 466 790
 Jones E 727
 Jones E S 296
 Jones H B 181 182
 Jones J H 772
 Jones P J 638
 Jones T D., 478
 Jukes F H 647
 Kajdi C N 229 243 255 487
 Kajdi L., 191 482
 Kaley M W 398
 Karrer P 304 305 395
 Kattus A A 256 645
 Kaunitz H 415
 Kay H D., 52
 Keane H N 529
 Keevil N B 670
 Kehoe R A 32
 Keil H L 137
 Keilin D., 128 175
 Kelly E. 706
 Kemmerer A R 162
 Kemmerer K S 270
 Kendall E C 640
 Kennedy C 759
 Kensler C J 550 710
 Keresztesy J C., 627 678
 Kesten H D 779
 King C G 448 451 457
 King W D 503
 Kirkwood S B 6
 Klein H 67

- Kijhos, E D., 510
 Knutson J W 223
 Koch M B., 725 726
 Koch W., 484
 Kogl F 695
 Kolb L C., 655
 Kolnitz H von 207
 Kornberg A., 88 443 645 712
 Krehl W A., 588 589 590 591
 Kramer B., 366 368
 Krampitz, L O., 453 533
 Kruse H D., 51 54 55 57, 58 75 569
 Kuhlmann D., 102
 Kuhn R., 545 546
 Kupel C W., 737

 Lan T H., 456
 Langston W C., 715 716
 Lantz E. M., 218
 Lardy H A., 83
 Lasnitzki A., 19
 Lauritsen M 572 638
 Lawrence E O., 123
 Lawson H A., 778
 Lease J G 706
 Lee J N., 702
 Leggett T H., 784
 Lehrman A., 365
 Lenhart C H., 208 210 213
 Lepkovsky S 634 635 636 639 646 647
 648 744
 Levene S Z., 455
 Levine H 202
 Lewis G T., 34
 Lewis, H B 34 248 275 277
 Lewis R C 620
 Liang T., 461
 Lichstein H C., 11 12 13
 Liebow A A 89
 Light J 482
 Lillie R D 294 673 678 679
 Lines E W 157 158
 Link K P 441 442 458
 Lintz J., 784
 Lippincott S W., 553 609
 Lipton M A., 493
 Lisco H 655
 Liu J H., 536
 Loeb R F 87 107 104
 Lohmann K 488
 Loizides P A 685
 Long C N H., 461
 Lord J W., 439
 Lowenhaupt E., 788
 Lowry J V., 494 678 679
 Lowry O H., 558 560
 Lu G D 418 507
 Lucia, S P., 66
 Luckey T D., 577
 Lund, C. C., 465

 Lundberg W O., 396
 Lutz, R E., 179
 Lyman C M., 497 493 600

 Maass A R., 564
 Mabon H E., 389
 MacBryde C M., 105
 Maccallum A B., 130
 MacCallum W G., 784
 MacCardle R C., 61 62
 Mackenzie C G 206 410 412
 Mackenzie J B., 206
 MacLean A L., 320
 Madden R J 578
 Madden S C., 236 256
 Maddock S., 126
 Maeder E C., 745
 Major R T., 602
 Mann T., 178 175
 Mannerink G T 551
 Marchand J F., 782
 Marine D., 208 210 213
 Marples E., 455
 Marston H R., 156 158 159
 Martin A J P 773
 Martin D W 292
 Martin G J., 36 225 278
 Masden L L 333
 Mason H L., 535 538
 Mason K. E., 325 326 401 404 406 407
 408 425 428 430
 Mattull H A 391 399 472 473 477
 Maudsley C., 501
 Maun M E. 250 259 263
 Maynard L A 171
 Maxwell J P., 387
 McBroom J., 478
 McCall K. B., 13 296 499 707
 McCance R A., 65 108
 McCann D C., 307
 McClendon J F 211 214 217
 McCollum E V., 47 51 54 55 57 58 67
 75 78 87 107 109 110 114 115 163
 167 169 184 185 215 300 349 350
 351 352 412 514 515 759 762
 McCoy R H., 136 266
 McDonald I W., 159
 McElroy L W., 607
 McFarland W J 89
 McHargue J S., 95
 McHenry E W., 670
 McIntire J M., 138 614
 McKay F S., 271
 McHubbin J M., 264 586 617 651 675
 676 677 689
 McLean F C., 118 364
 Medlicott M., 131 132 172
 Meiklejohn A P., 509
 Mellanby E., 327 346 347
 Mellville D B., 697

- Harris L J., 501 626
 Harris P L., 398
 Harris S A., 629 699
 Harrison T R., 111
 Hart E B., 70 26 90 151 162 174 178
 187, 188 189, 190 192 205 526 527
 564 617 711 763
 Harvey H I., 289
 Hastings A B., 500
 Hawkins W B., 282
 Haynes F W., 507 508
 Heard E V., 277
 Heath C W., 126 127
 Hegsted D M., 264 526 689
 Heinrich M R., 427
 Heitzer K., 247
 Helfenstein A., 304
 Hellerman L., 166
 Hellman L M., 444 446
 Hellwig C A., 201
 Helmer O M., 647 648
 Henderson L M., 138
 Hendrick L G., 761
 Herbert P H., 754
 Hershey J M., 661 662
 Hess A F., 356 358
 Heuser G F., 173
 Hewston E H., 31
 Hibbs R L., 295
 Hickman K C D., 398
 Hightower D P., 660
 Himsforth H P., 274
 Hinsey J C., 571
 Hirst E L., 450
 Hitchens G H., 603
 Hoagland C L., 671
 Hock C W., 242
 Hodge H C., 750
 Hoff H E., 81
 Hoffman M M., 336
 Hogan A G., 775
 Hojer J A., 469
 Holaday D., 600
 Holler H W., 783
 Holm E., 321
 Holmberg C G., 176
 Holt L E., 229 237 238 243 251 255
 785 537
 Hooker C W., 7
 Hoover S R., 694
 Hopkins F G., 227
 Hou H C., 540 571 572 573
 Houchins O B., 397 422 423 426 774
 Howe L., 20 26 178 187 188 189 190
 192 765
 Howe P R., 312 313 319 334 382 462 476
 Howland J., 116 353 366 468
 Hsu H., 338
 Hu C., 323
 Hu D G., 81
 Hubbard L H., 660
 Huff J W., 594
 Huffman C F., 330
 Hunter A H., 141 143
 Hulschinsky K., 354
 Humphreys S., 234 498 504 527 555 597
 610 637 638 653
 Hunt A H., 464
 Hunter G., 772
 Huntsman M E., 667 663
 Hyde J E., 84
 Ingraham L P., 658
 Innes J R M., 147 144 145
 Irby V., 238 251 285
 Irving J T., 71
 Isbell H., 713
 Jackson C M., 17 743
 Jackson D., 191 385 386 388 471
 Jasper H H., 531
 Jay P., 724
 Jenner H D., 52
 Jervis G A., 273
 Jewett, H J., 343
 Johnson J E., 260 287 288
 Johnson M L., 327
 Jones C M., 466 790
 Jones E., 727
 Jones E S., 296
 Jones H B., 181 182
 Jones J H., 772
 Jones P J., 638
 Jones T D., 478
 Jukes T H., 647
 Kajdi C N., 229 743 255 482
 Kajdi L., 191 482
 Kaley M W., 398
 Karrer P., 304 305 395
 Kattus A A., 256 645
 Kaunitz H., 415
 Kay H D., 52
 Keane H N., 529
 Keenil N B., 670
 Kehoe R A., 32
 Keil H L., 137
 Keilin D., 128 175
 Kelly E., 706
 Kemmerer A R., 162
 Kemmerer K S., 270
 Kendall E C., 640
 Kennedy C., 759
 Kensler C J., 550 710
 Keresztesy J C., 627 628
 Kesten H D., 779
 King C G., 448 451 457
 King W D., 503
 Kirkwood S B., 6
 Klein H., 67

- Ragan C., 101, 102, 104
 Raleigh G. J., 27
 Ralli C. P., 751
 Ramage H., 24 30
 Randall R. M., 237
 Rannefeld A. N., 631
 Rask O. S., 23
 Rasmussen A. F., Jr., 10 12
 Ratner S., 616
 Rawson R. W., 197
 Reed B. P., 383
 Reed C. L., 383
 Reichstein T., 449
 Reid D. F., 616
 Reid M. L., 344
 Reiman C. K., 164
 Reinemund K., 546
 Remington R. E., 207
 Remmert, L. F., 246
 Rhoades C. P., 550 710 737 778
 Rice C. E., 230
 Rich A. R., 597
 Richards M. M., 166
 Richter C. P., 749
 Riggs H. E., 539
 Ringer S., 37
 Ringier B. H., 395
 Rinzler S., 751
 Rittenberg D., 741 756
 Rivers T. M., 621
 Roberts, E., 279
 Roberts H. H., 124
 Roberts L. J., 340
 Robinson A., 107
 Robison R., 372
 Roboz, E., 635
 Robscheit Robbins F. S. 235 281
 Roizin L., 767
 Rose, C. S., 697
 Rose W. C., 230 245 252 257 260 261
 266 267 270 286 287 288
 Rosen F., 594
 Rosenheim A. H., 372
 Roskelley R., 200
 Rous, P., 373
 Routh J. L., 774
 Rubin S. H., 751
 Ruegamer W. R. 90 711
 Ruffin, J. M., 290 291
 Rupp J. J., 658
 Rusch H. P., 657
 Rusoff, L. L., 25
 Russell, W. O., 480
 Ruzsnyak, St., 598
 Ryan, A. E., 466 790
 Salcedo H., 799
 Salt, P. W., 46
 Salmon K., 607
 Salmon, W. D., 520 673
 Salomon H. 395
 Salter H. P. Jr. 315
 Sampson M. M. 204
 Sanger, F. 240
 Saret H. P., 548
 Sarma P. S., 591
 Saslaw S., 717 724
 Satterfield G. H., 339
 Sayers G. 461
 Sayers M. A., 461
 Schaefer A. E., 586 612 651
 Schaffenberg L. 337 566
 Schenck J. R. 272
 Schleicher E. M. 691
 Schlenck F. 577
 Schmidt, C. L. A., 33 35
 Schmidt M. M. 51 58
 Schmorl G., 384
 Schneider H., 113 117
 Schoenheimer R., 239 254 258 741
 Schogoleff C., 409
 Schonheyder F. 435
 Schopp K., 304
 Schour L., 72 336 380 381
 Schrader G. A., 520
 Schubmehl Q. D. 148
 Schultze M. O. 133 134 135
 Schuster P. 488
 Schwab J. L. 717 724
 Schweigert B. S., 16 614
 Scott, E. M., 136
 Scott G. H. 29
 Scudi J. V., 605
 Scull C. W. 252
 Sealock R. R. 454 456
 Seabrell W. H. 294 443 503 568 569 645
 678 679 681 712 719 723
 Seegers W. H., 418
 Selye H. 99
 Sevringhaus E. L. 570
 Shaffer C. B. 284
 Sharpless G. R., 215
 Shaw J. H. 16 170 205 483 525 567 709
 Shearer G. D., 142 145
 Sheldon J. H., 24 30
 Shelton G. E. 181 182 183
 Shemin D., 756
 Sherman, H. C. 348
 Sherman W. C. 619
 Shettles L. B., 255 446
 Shuls M. E. 169
 Shimotori N., 363
 Shipley P. G., 349 350 351 352 367 368
 Shohl A. T., 377
 Shukers C. F., 715
 Shwachman, H., 459 512
 Silber R. H., 613
 Simmonds N., 349, 350 351 352 515
 Simmonds S., 271 272
 Sinal S. A., 596 713

- Meltzer S J 50
 Mendel L B 77 228 301, 599
 Mettner S R 125 649
 Meyer C E 266 267
 Meyer E 467
 Meyer M B 467
 Michaelis J F 562
 Michaud I 564 711
 Michel H O 460
 Miles L M 387
 Miller E G 316
 Miller H C 97 100
 Miller J A 657
 Miller J I 76
 Miller J L Jr 655
 Miller L L., 256 281 283
 Miller M H 498 506 637
 Miller M L., 444
 Mims V 716 718
 Miner D L 657
 Minnich V 124
 Minor A S 164
 Minor G R 125
 Mitchell H H 276 280
 Mitchell H K 720
 Montgomery M 181 182 183
 Moore C V., 124 728
 Moore H O 160
 Moore L A 92 330 331 332
 Moore R A 439 444 768
 Moore T 303 309 773
 Moosnick F B 691
 Morf R., 304
 Morgan A F 363 639
 Morgulis S 48 419
 Morris H P 553 609
 Morris M E 318
 Morton M E 194 195
 Moses C 284
 Moss A R 258
 Mote J R 478
 Mozingo R 699
 Mulford D J 687
 Murphy C A 744
 Murnane D 158
 Mushatt C 655
 Muus J 500
 Myerson A 529
 Mylon E 86

 Najjar V., 498 537
 Neal W M 161
 Nelson M M 766
 Nelson R C., 565
 Nelson V E 137
 Neuberger A 240 241 274
 Neumann C 521
 Nicolaysen C 359 360
 Nicholls J 298 299 552 606 642 703
 Nielsen E 634 708 736 780

 Norris I C 173

 Ochoa S 53 489 490
 Ogden F N 730
 Okamoto K 632
 Olcott H S 307 193
 O'Neill J 101
 Oppel T W 714
 Oppenheimer R 449
 Orent Keles E 21 47 54 55 57 67 75
 78 87 107 109 110 161 167
 Orsini D 551
 Orten A U 335
 Osborne T B 77 228 301
 Oster R H 505
 Overman R S 442

 Pack G T 737
 Papish J., 22
 Pappenheimer A M., 348 405 409 411 413
 414 415 424 433
 Park E A., 116 191 349 350 351 353
 378 379 385 386 471
 Parsons D 646
 Parsons H T 349 351 575 706
 Partridge C W H 707
 Patek A J 753
 Patras M D 77
 Patterson L. G., 677
 Patterson J M., 670
 Paulson M 610
 Payne G C., 778
 Peacock W 197
 Pennington D 701
 Pentz E I 99
 Perlman I 194 195
 Persons C L 269
 Perlzweig W A 548 594
 Peters R A 53 490 491
 Peterson W E 691
 Pfeiffer C A 7
 Phillips P H 16 83 170 216 483 519
 525 567 709
 Philpot F J 559
 Pierce J A 374
 Pijoan M 529
 Pine A 559
 Pommer G 345
 Popper H 310 680
 Porter R R 496
 Post J 753
 Potter F L 447
 Potter R L 554
 Power M H 538
 Prados M., 530
 Prickett C O 517 520
 Pund E R 247

 Quick A J 440

- Warburg O., 544 576
 Ward S M., 621
 Warkany J., 5 337, 389 565 566
 Warner D T., 260
 Warner E. D., 400 438
 Warren C. O., 148
 Warrick F B., 370
 Watchorn, E., 65
 Waugh W A., 448
 Webster T A., 241
 Wechtel C., 754
 Wehrli H., 304
 Weichselbaum, L., 293
 Weinmann, J P., 380 381
 Weinstock M., 356 358
 Weissman, N., 239
 Weiss, S., 500 507 508 534
 Welch A D., 18 728
 Welch J H., 84
 Wells, H E., 140 142
 Wenckebach K F., 532
 Werle E., 247
 Wesson L G., 387
 West, P M., 696
 Wettstein, A., 304
 Weygand, F., 546
 Wheeler G A., 581 582
 Whipple G H., 123 235 236 256 281 283
 Wiese, H F., 746
 Wilder R M., 535 538
 Wilder V M., 419
 Willcock, E G., 227
 Williams, R. D., 535 538
 Williams, R J., 600 601 607 700 720
 Williams R R., 487
 Williamson R., 742
 Wilson H L., 717 724 729
 Wilson P W., 696
 Wilson R H., 275
 Winkler A W., 81
 Winternitz M C., 86 103
 Wintrobe M M., 234 498 504 506 522
 541 555 597 610 611 637 638 653
 655 776
 Wissler R S., 9
 Wolbach S B., 3 312 313 317 319 328
 329 334 341 377 382 462 463 474 475
 557 771
 Wolf A., 433
 Wolf D E., 699
 Wolfe, J M., 315
 Womack M., 257 261 270
 Wood I R., 148
 Woolley D W., 226 453 533 578 731
 732 735 769
 Woolley G W., 15
 Woolpert, O C., 724
 Worden A N., 654
 Wright C., 729
 Wright L D., 604 728
 Wright, N C., 22
 Yeomans, A., 496
 Zacho C E., 786
 Zimmerman H M., 563 650
 Zoll P M., 502
 Zucker L M., 44
 Zucker T F., 44
 Zuelzer W W., 730
 Zweifach B W., 40 41

- Singher H O 550
 Sinnhuber R O 253
 Skinner J T., 95
 Sloan L L 343
 Smadel J E 621
 Smith A H 335
 Smith B F 535
 Smith D C., 505
 Smith D T 289 290 291
 Smith G E 209
 Smith H P 438
 Smith H V 218
 Smith J J 542
 Smith M C., 218 336
 Smith M I., 516 761
 Smith P W 426
 Smith S E 131 132 172 314
 Smith S G., 292
 Smith W A 757
 Smuts D B., 276
 Snell E E 631 700 701 720
 Snyder F H 59
 Sober H A 80
 Spangler J M 710
 Spector H., 564
 Spencer H C 419
 Sperling G 171
 Spicer S S., 723
 Spies T D 8 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 309 310 311 312 313 314 315 316 317 318 319 320 321 322 323 324 325 326 327 328 329 330 331 332 333 334 335 336 337 338 339 340 341 342 343 344 345 346 347 348 349 350 351 352 353 354 355 356 357 358 359 360 361 362 363 364 365 366 367 368 369 370 371 372 373 374 375 376 377 378 379 380 381 382 383 384 385 386 387 388 389 390 391 392 393 394 395 396 397 398 399 400 401 402 403 404 405 406 407 408 409 410 411 412 413 414 415 416 417 418 419 420 421 422 423 424 425 426 427 428 429 430 431 432 433 434 435 436 437 438 439 440 441 442 443 444 445 446 447 448 449 450 451 452 453 454 455 456 457 458 459 460 461 462 463 464 465 466 467 468 469 470 471 472 473 474 475 476 477 478 479 480 481 482 483 484 485 486 487 488 489 490 491 492 493 494 495 496 497 498 499 500 501 502 503 504 505 506 507 508 509 510 511 512 513 514 515 516 517 518 519 520 521 522 523 524 525 526 527 528 529 530 531 532 533 534 535 536 537 538 539 540 541 542 543 544 545 546 547 548 549 550 551 552 553 554 555 556 557 558 559 560 561 562 563 564 565 566 567 568 569 570 571 572 573 574 575 576 577 578 579 580 581 582 583 584 585 586 587 588 589 590 591 592 593 594 595 596 597 598 599 600 601 602 603 604 605 606 607 608 609 610 611 612 613 614 615 616 617 618 619 620 621 622 623 624 625 626 627 628 629 630 631 632 633 634 635 636 637 638 639 640 641 642 643 644 645 646 647 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 656 657 658 659 660 661 662 663 664 665 666 667 668 669 670 671 672 673 674 675 676 677 678 679 680 681 682 683 684 685 686 687 688 689 690 691 692 693 694 695 696 697 698 699 700 701 702 703 704 705 706 707 708 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 717 718 719 720 721 722 723 724 725 726 727 728 729 730 731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752 753 754 755 756 757 758 759 760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790 791 792 793 794 795 796 797 798 799 800 801 802 803 804 805 806 807 808 809 810 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 822 823 824 825 826 827 828 829 830 831 832 833 834 835 836 837 838 839 840 841 842 843 844 845 846 847 848 849 850 851 852 853 854 855 856 857 858 859 860 861 862 863 864 865 866 867 868 869 870 871 872 873 874 875 876 877 878 879 880 881 882 883 884 885 886 887 888 889 890 891 892 893 894 895 896 897 898 899 900 901 902 903 904 905 906 907 908 909 910 911 912 913 914 915 916 917 918 919 920 921 922 923 924 925 926 927 928 929 930 931 932 933 934 935 936 937 938 939 940 941 942 943 944 945 946 947 948 949 950 951 952 953 954 955 956 957 958 959 960 961 962 963 964 965 966 967 968 969 970 971 972 973 974 975 976 977 978 979 980 981 982 983 984 985 986 987 988 989 990 991 992 993 994 995 996 997 998 999 1000
- St John J L., 106
 Stare F J., 264 675 677 689
 Starr P., 200
 Steele C W., 754
 Steenbock H 113 117 302 355 617
 Stein G 429
 Stein H B 620
 Stein H J 498 506 522 592 637 655
 Steinberg R A., 787
 Stettin, deW., 668 669 671 779
 Stevens J R 627 628
 Stuller E T 628
 Stone L 518
 Story R V 32
 Street H R 563 650
 Strobele R 546
 Strong F M 578
 Strong G H 343
 Stuart H C 6
 SubbaRow Y 603
 Sugiura K 710
 Suksta A., 234 637
 Sullivan J 199
 Sullivan M 60 63 298 299 324 552 606
 642 703 704
 Sullivan W R., 458
 Summerson W H., 702
 Sunderland D A 478
 Surtzef V 14
 Sure B., 549 633
- Sutro C J 270
 Swank R L., 496 523 524 530 531
 Swann K C., 46
 Sydenstricker V P., 242 569 596 713
 Sykes J F., 91 92 331 332
 Szent Gyorgyi A 598
- Tabor H., 645 712
 Tannheimer J F 197
 Tarver H 33 35
 Taylor H C 550
 Telford I R., 417
 Tennant R., 89
 Tepley, L J., 589 590 591
 Teresi J D 763
 Thacher E J 119 120
 Thayer S 675 677
 Thomas R M 86
 Thompson J., 203
 Thorn G W., 149
 Thornton H G., 764
 Tilden E B 316
 Towbin C J 750
 Todd W R., 174
 Toman J E P., 505
 Tonnus B 695
 Totter J R., 232 718
 Truesdail J H., 600
 Tufts E V 56 66
 Turner W D 365
 Turpeinen O., 112
 Tweedy W R., 59
 Tyslowitz R., 199
- Ucko H 28
 Umbreit W W., 641
 Underhill F P 580 599
 Underwood E. J., 150 153 154 155
 Unna K 550 643
 Urner J A., 403
 Utamura M., 622
- Vedder E B 513
 Vermilye H N 784
 Victor J 421 684
 Vilter R W., 297 725 726
 Volker J F., 755
 Voris L 119
- Wachtel L W 188
 Wachstein M., 683
 Waddell J 617
 Wade N J., 664
 Wagner Jauregg T 545
 Wahlm J G 716
 Watson H A., 10 11 12 13 138 296
 499 556 705 707
 Wald G 311
 Waltner K., 147
 Wangerin D M 243 255

- Warburg O., 544 576
 Ward S M., 621
 Warkany J., 5 337, 389 565 566
 Warner D T., 260
 Warner E. D., 400 438
 Warren C. O., 148
 Warrick F B., 370
 Watchorn E., 65
 Waugh W A., 448
 Webster T A., 241
 Wechtel C., 754
 Wehrli H., 304
 Weichselbaum L., 293
 Weinmann J P., 380 381
 Weinstock M., 356 358
 Weissman N., 239
 Weiss S 500 502 508 534
 Welch A D., 18 728
 Welch J H., 84
 Wells H E., 140 147
 Wenckebach K F., 532
 Werle E., 247
 Wesson L G., 382
 West, P M., 696
 Wettstein A., 304
 Weygand F., 546
 Wheeler G A., 581 582
 Whipple G H 123 235 236 256 281 283
 Wiese H F., 746
 Wilder R M., 535 538
 Wilder V M 419
 Willcock E G., 227
 Williams R D., 535 538
 Williams, R J 600 601 607 700 720
 Williams R R., 487
 Williamson R., 742
 Wilson H F., 717 724 779
 Wilson P W 696
 Wilson R H 275
 Winkler A W., 81
 Winternitz M C 86 103
 Wintrobe M M., 234 498 504 506 522
 541 555, 592 610 611 637 638 653
 655 776
 Wissler R S 9
 Wolbach S B., 3 312 313 317 319 328
 329 334 341 377 382 462 463 474 475
 557 771
 Wolf A., 433
 Wolf D E., 699
 Wolfe J M., 315
 Womack M 257 261 270
 Wood I R 148
 Woolley D W., 226 453 533 578 731
 732 735 769
 Woolley G W., 15
 Woolpert, O C., 724
 Worden A N 654
 Wright C 729
 Wright L D 604 728
 Wright, N C., 22
 Yeomans A., 496
 Zacho C E., 786
 Zimmerman H M., 563 650
 Zoll P M 502
 Zucker L M 44
 Zucker T F 44
 Zuelzer W W 730
 Zweifach B W., 40 41

SUBJECT INDEX

- Achromotrichia *See* Hair
- Adrenal
 - Cortical hormone and ascorbic acid 131
 - Pantothenic acid deficiency 179 181 223
- Alopecia *See* Hair
- Alpha tocopherol
 - Biological role 119 120 121
 - Ceroid formation 126 127
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Heart 125 126
 - Kidney 176
 - Man 177
 - Reproduction 120-122
 - Teeth 177
 - Testis, 172 123
 - Skeletal muscle 123 125
- Aluminum 21
- Anemia *See* Red Blood Cells
- Antibody formation 7
- Arachidonic acid
 - Deficiency of 209 210
- Arginase
 - Manganese and 20 57 59
- Arginine
 - Biochemical relationships of 79
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Growth 79
 - Man 79 274
 - Plasma protein formation 79
 - Red blood cells 79
- Arsenic 21
- Ascorbic acid
 - Biochemical relationships
 - Adrenal cortical hormone formation 131 132
 - Phenylalanine metabolism 131
 - Phosphatase 131
 - Secretion of aqueous humor 131
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Abscess formation 134
 - Bone formation 134-140
 - Man 143 145
 - Collagen formation 132 134 147 14
 - 725 776
 - Teeth 140-147
- Ascorbic acid oxidase copper and 70 51
- Atabrine effect in choline deficiency 197
- Avidin 12 199
- Barium 21
- Benberl 154-158
- Biotin
 - Biochemical Relationships 199
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Man 201 202
 - Nervous Tissue 201
 - Skin 199 700
 - Tumors, 201
- Black tongue 167 170
- Blood coagulation
 - Calcium and 25 232
 - Vitamin K and 128 232
- Blood vessels
 - Ascorbic acid and 133 230
 - Calcium and 25 26 230
 - Citrin and 230 232
- Bone
 - Ascorbic acid deficiency 134 140 226
 - Manganese deficiency 58 77
 - Normal growth 106-110
 - Vitamin A deficiency 97 100 226
 - Vitamin D deficiency 110-116 226
- Boron 20 71 23
- Bromine 21
- Cadmium 227
- Calcium
 - Biochemical relationships 25 105
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Blood vessels, 25 76 230
 - Heart 26
 - I ens 76
 - Parathyroid glands 26
 - Reproduction 26
 - Stomach 26
- Carbonic anhydrase zinc and 19 63
- Canes *See* Teeth
- Fluorine and 69 70
- Cataract *See* Lens
- Ceroid
 - Alpha tocopherol deficiency 126 127 195
 - Choline deficiency 195
- Cesium 21 23 35
- Chastek paralysis 153
- Chlorine deficiency effects of 45-47
- Chlorosis 49
- Choline
 - Biochemical relationships 87 197 193
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Eye 198
 - Kidney 196-197
 - Liver 193 195
 - Man 198
- Cirrhosis, 194 195 721 227
- Citrin 230
- Cobalt
 - Biochemical relationships, 56
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Red blood cells, 56 57
- Collagen ascorbic acid and 137 134 147 143
- 275 226
- Congenital Malformation riboflavin and 164 165
- Convulsions
 - Magnesium deficiency and 27 79 235
 - Pyridoxine deficiency and 187 190 235

Copper

Biochemical relationships 20 50 51

Deficiency effects of on

Hair 52

Man 55

Nervous Tissue 52 55

Red blood cells 51 52

Corn relation to nicotinic acid metabolism 170

Cornea

Histidine deficiency and 78 270

Leucine deficiency and 80

Lysine deficiency and 77 270

Riboflavin deficiency and 161 162 220

Sodium deficiency and 40 270

Tryptophane deficiency and 76 220

Vitamin A deficiency and 94 220

Zinc deficiency and 67 220

Cystine

Deficiency effects of on

Hair 84

Liver 87 84

Cytochrome oxidase

Copper deficiency and

Iron deficiency and 48

Decarboxylase 146 183

Desoxycorticosterone 36 38

Dicoumarol 128

Electrocardiogram

Potassium deficiency 33 36

Thiamine deficiency 146 147 154

Electroencephalogram thiamine deficiency 153

Enamel organ *See* Teeth

Esophagus zinc deficiency 61 219

Estrogens

Effect on skin 7 218

Inactivation by liver 7 218

Eye *See* Cornea Lens Retina**Fatty acid Essential**

Biochemical relationships 209

Deficiency effects of on

Kidney 209 210

Man 210

Reproduction 210

Skin 209 210

Fluorine

Deficiency effects of 68 69

Excess and caries 69

Folic acid

Biochemical relationships 202

Deficiency effects of on

Man 203 204

Red blood cells 203 230

White blood cells 203 230

Glossitis riboflavin deficiency 165 166 219

Glycine 229

Glucoscorbic acid 130

Goiter 65-68

Hair

Achromotrichia

Copper deficiency 52 218

Pantothenic acid deficiency 176 218

Para aminobenzoic acid deficiency 206 218

Alopecia

Biotin deficiency 199

Inositol deficiency 204 205

Pantothenic acid deficiency 176

Riboflavin deficiency 159

Tryptophane deficiency 75

Zinc deficiency 60

Harderian gland pantothenic acid deficiency 179

Heart

Alpha tocopherol deficiency 125 126 232

Ascorbic acid deficiency 144 233

Potassium deficiency 33 36 232

Thiamine deficiency 146-149 232

Hemoglobin formation 229

Copper deficiency 51

Iron deficiency 48 49

Leucine deficiency 80

Methionine deficiency 84

Phenylalanine deficiency 80

Pyridoxine deficiency 185 187 229

Riboflavin deficiency 163 164

Tryptophane deficiency 76

Hemosiderin 47

Pyridoxine deficiency 186 187

Histidine

Biochemical relationships 78

Deficiency effects of on,

Cornea 78

Growth 78

Man 78

Red blood cells 78

Histochemical test

Ascorbic acid 139

Chlorine 45

Copper 51

Iron 47

Potassium 33

Vitamin A 91

Hookworm disease 50**Hypophysis** 225

Leucine deficiency 80 225

Vitamin A deficiency 100 225

Inanition general 9**Inositol**

Biochemical relationships 204

Deficiency effect on hair 204 205

Intestine pantothenic acid deficiency 176 179

Intestinal flora

Amino acid synthesis 13 73

Vitamin synthesis 13

- Iodine
 - Biochemical relationships, 64
 - Deficiency effect on thyroid gland, 65 67
- Iron
 - Biochemical relationships, 47
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Red blood cells, 47 50
 - Tooth pigmentation, 48
- Isoleucine
 - Biochemical relationships, 81
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Man, 81
 - Plasma protein, 81
- Isotopes, 70
- Kidney
 - Alpha tocopherol deficiency 126
 - Chlorine deficiency 46 273
 - Choline deficiency 196-197 273
 - Disease and bone changes, 119
 - Fatty acid deficiency 709 210 223
 - Magnesium deficiency 30 223
 - Potassium deficiency 36, 223
- L. Casei factor See Folic Acid
- Lead, 21 73
- Lens
 - Cataract 270
 - Calcium deficiency 26
 - Riboflavin deficiency 167 163
 - Tryptophane deficiency 75
- Leucine
 - Biochemical relationships, 80
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Growth, 80
 - Hemoglobin, 80
 - Man, 80
 - Plasma proteins, 80
- Linoleic acid See Fatty Acids
- Linolenic acid See Fatty Acids
- Lithium, 21
- Liver See Cirrhosis
 - Choline deficiency 197 199 221
 - Cystine deficiency 83 84
 - Disease in man, 222
 - Inositol deficiency 209
 - Magnesium deficiency 30
 - Pantothenic acid deficiency 182
 - Pyridoxine deficiency 191
 - Riboflavin deficiency 164
- Lung
 - Atelectasis, phosphorus deficiency 43
 - Pneumonia, vitamin A deficiency 103
- Lysine
 - Biochemical relationships, 77
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Cornea, 77
 - Growth, 77
 - Man, 77
 - Red blood cells, 77
- Magnesium
 - Biochemical relationships 27
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Heart, 29 30
 - Kidney 30
 - Liver 30
 - Man 37
 - Nervous system, 27 28
 - Skin, 30
 - Teeth 30 32
- Manganese
 - Biochemical relationships, 57
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Bone 58
 - Growth 58
 - Nervous system, 58
 - Reproduction, 58 59
- Methionine
 - Biochemical relationships, 82 197
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Hemoglobin, 84
 - Man, 85
 - Plasma proteins, 84
- Muscle See Heart
 - Striated
 - Alpha tocopherol deficiency 123 125 233
 - Combined potassium and thiamine deficiency 149
- Nielsen
 - Copper deficiency 52
 - Pantothenic acid deficiency 179
 - Pyridoxine deficiency 190
- Nervous tissues
 - Brain
 - Copper deficiency 52 55 235
 - Magnesium deficiency 27 28
 - Manganese deficiency 58
 - Thiamine deficiency 152, 153
 - Vitamin A deficiency 97 100
 - Vitamin K deficiency 129
 - Peripheral nerve
 - Biotin deficiency 201
 - Pantothenic acid deficiency 179 180 233 234
 - Pyridoxine deficiency 187 191 233 234
 - Riboflavin deficiency 164
 - Thiamine deficiency 149-151 234
- Nicotinic acid See Blacktongue Pellagra,
 - Biochemical relationships, 75 166, 167
 - Blacktongue syndrome 167-170
 - Deficiency in man, 170-173
- Nyctalopia, 94 95
- Osteomalacia
 - Pathology 110-115
 - Incidence, 118
 - Kidney disease 119

- Pancreas** vitamin A deficiency 92 223
- Pantothenic acid**
 Biochemical relationships, 173 174
 Deficiency effects of on
 Adrenal 179 181
 Harderian gland 179
 Intestine 176-179
 Nervous system 179
 Skin 175 176
- Para aminobenzoic acid**
 Biochemical relationships 203
 Deficiency achromotrichia 203
- Parathyroid glands**
 Calcium deficiency 26 225
 Phosphorus deficiency 44 225
- Pellagra** 170-173
- Phenylalanine**
 Biochemical relationships 79
 Deficiency effects of on
 Growth 80
 Hemoglobin 80
 Man 80
 Plasma protein 80
- Phosphatase**
 Ascorbic acid deficiency 131
 Magnesium and 27
 Manganese and 57
 Zinc and 59 63
- Phosphorus**
 Biochemical relationships 47
 Deficiency effects of on
 Bone 104 105
- Placenta**
 Alpha tocopherol deficiency 121
 Vitamin A deficiency 97
 Vitamin K deficiency 129
- Plasma protein**
 Isoleucine deficiency 81
 Leucine deficiency 80
 Methionine deficiency 84
 Phenylalanine deficiency 80
 Threonine deficiency 81
 Tryptophane deficiency 76
- Potassium**
 Biochemical relationships 32 33 35 37
 Deficiency effects of on,
 Heart 33 36
 Kidney 36 37
 Man, 38
 Muscle 36
 Thiamine deficiency 35
- Prothrombin**
 Calcium effect 20 25
 Vitamin K deficiency 128
- Protoporphyrin** 228 229
- Pteroylglutamic acid** *See* Folic Acid
- Pyridoxine**
 Biochemical relationships 183 184
 Deficiency effects of on,
 Liver 191
 Man 191
 Nervous system 187 191
 Red blood cells, 185 187
 Skin 183 185
 Tumors 191
- Pyruvic acid**
 Thiamine deficiency 146
- Red blood cells**
 Arginine deficiency 79
 Cobalt deficiency 56 228
 Copper deficiency 51 228
 Folic acid deficiency 203 204 230
 Histidine deficiency 78
 Iron deficiency 48
 Lysine deficiency 77
 Nicotinic acid deficiency 169 278
 Pyridoxine deficiency, 185 187
 Riboflavin deficiency 163 164 230
 Tryptophane deficiency 76
- Reproduction**
 Alpha tocopherol deficiency 121 224
 Manganese deficiency 58 59 224
 Tryptophane deficiency 76
 Vitamin A deficiency 97 224
 Vitamin K deficiency 129
- Retina** vitamin A deficiency 95 221
- Rickets**
 Incidence 118
 Pathology 110-115
- Riboflavin**
 Biochemical relationships 158 160
 Deficiency effects of on
 Congenital malformations 164 165
 Cornea 161
 Lens 167 163
 Man 165 166
 Red blood cells 163 164
 Skin, 163
- Rubidium** 21 23
- Scurvy** *See* Ascorbic Acid Deficiency
- Sebaceous glands**
 Riboflavin deficiency 159
 Zinc deficiency 61
- Silicon** 21
- Skin** general 216-219
 Biotin deficiency 199 200
 Fatty acid deficiency 209 210
 Magnesium deficiency 30
 Pantothenic acid deficiency 173 176
 Pyridoxine deficiency 183 185
 Riboflavin deficiency 159 160
 Tryptophane deficiency 75
 Vitamin A deficiency 95 96
 Zinc deficiency 60
- Sodium**
 Biochemical relationships 39

- Deficiency effects of on,
 - Eye 39
 - Man, 41
- Sprue 204
- Stomach calcium deficiency 26
- Strontium, 21
- Succinic dehydrogenase
 - Alpha tocopherol deficiency 125
 - Ascorbic acid deficiency 143
- Sulfur 47
- Swayback 52
- Teeth 227 228
 - Alpha tocopherol deficiency 127
 - Ascorbic acid deficiency 140-147
 - Fluorine effects of 68
 - Iron deficiency 48
 - Magnesium deficiency 32
 - Normal growth 100 101
 - Pigmentation 48 76 102 12
 - Tryptophane deficiency 76
 - Vitamin A deficiency 107
 - Vitamin D deficiency 116
- Thiamine
 - Biochemical relationships, 145 146
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Heart 146-149
 - Man *See* Benben
 - Nervous system 149 158
- Threonine
 - Biochemical relationships, 81
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Growth 81
 - Man, 81
 - Plasma protein 81
- Thymus, inanition 9
- Thyroid gland
 - Iodine deficiency 65-67
 - Physiology 64 65
- Tin 21
- Titanium, 21
- Tongue
 - Iron deficiency 50
 - Riboflavin deficiency 159
 - Zinc deficiency 67
- Tryptophane
 - Biochemical relationships, 75
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Cornea 76
 - Growth 75
 - Lens, 75 76
 - Man, 77
 - Plasma protein, 76
 - Red blood cells, 76
 - Skin, 75
 - Teeth, 76
- Tumors 7
 - Biotin deficiency 201
 - Pantothenic acid deficiency 191
- Ultraviolet radiation activation of vitamin D precursors, 105
- Ulcer stomach
 - Calcium deficiency 26
- Urease
 - Zinc content 20
 - Deficiency 59 63
- Valine
 - Biochemical relationships, 85
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Man 85
 - Nervous activity 85
 - Plasma protein, 85
- Vanadium, 21
- Vitamin 89
- Vitamin A
 - Biochemical relationships, 91 97
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Bone 97-100
 - Eye 94 95
 - Man, 107 104
 - Nervous tissue 97 100
 - Reproduction tract, 97
 - Skin, 95
 - Teeth 100-102
 - Trachea, 92 94
- Vitamin D
 - Biochemical relationships, 105 106
 - Deficiency *See* Rickets
- Vitamin E. *See* Alpha Tocopherol
- Vitamin K
 - Biochemical relationships, 128
 - Deficiency effects of on,
 - Man 129 130
 - Prothrombin 128
- Vitamin M *See* Folic acid
- Vitamin P *See* Citrin
- Wernicke's disease 153 156 157
- White blood cells 230
 - Folic acid 203 230
- Wound healing ascorbic acid deficiency 132 134
- Xanthurenic acid 183
- Xerosis, 94 103
- Zen 75 77
- Zinc
 - Biochemical relationships, 59
 - Deficiency effects of on
 - Cornea, 62
 - Esophagus, 61 219
 - Skin 60

THIS BOOK

THE PATHOLOGY OF
NUTRITIONAL DISEASE

By RICHARD H FOLLIS, JR., MD

*was set, printed, and bound by the Pantagraph
Printing and Stationery Company of Bloomington,
Illinois The type face is 11 on 13 point Linotype
Janson The text paper is 80 lb Black and White
Enamel The binding is DuPont Fabrikoid 5027
The jacket is Scarlet Buckeye Cover, Fabric finish*



*With THOMAS BOOKS careful attention is given
to all details of manufacturing and design It is the
publisher's desire to present books that are satisfactory
as to their physical qualities and artistic possibilities
and appropriate for their particular use THOMAS
BOOKS will be true to those laws of quality that
assure a good name and good will*

